NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC

HISTORY

POLAR OBSESSION
RACE TO THE NORTH

BATTLE OF MARATHON
GREECE CONFRONTS THE PERSIAN JUGGERNAUT

POWER PLAYER
ELEANOR OF AQUITAINE

LOST CITY OF THE INCA
SECRET REFUGE OF VILCABAMBA

PLUS:

Prohibition
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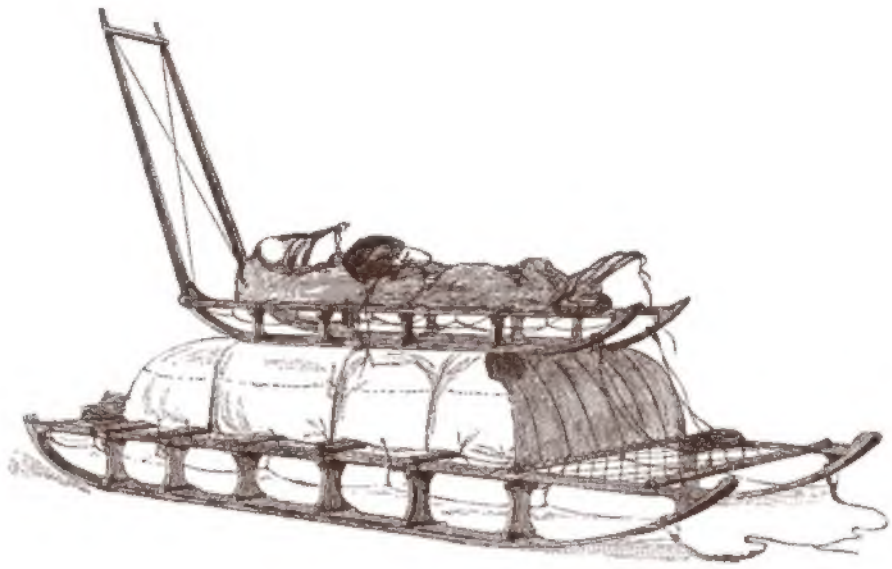

Think fast: Who was the first person to trek to the North Pole? Some may think it's American Robert Peary in 1909, but more than seven decades later, a reexamination of Peary's records by the National Geographic Society revealed he hadn't made it as far north as he thought.

For most of the 20th century the world believed the surface approach had been achieved by Peary. Others later reached the North Pole by air and by submarine, but the overland approach had been largely abandoned—until the 1960s, when a joke between friends inspired a ragtag group of Minnesotans to brave the Arctic.

One night over beers, insurance man Ralph Plaisted was raving about snowmobiles, and a friend kidded that if Plaisted loved them so much, he should ride one all the way to the North Pole. He took up his friend's challenge: In April 1968, 40-year-old Plaisted and his buddies successfully snowmobiled to the top of the world, their position verified by the United States Air Force.

Since the 1980s Plaisted's trip is widely accepted as the first surface voyage to the North Pole, and Plaisted himself gave the best explanation for why people stopped trying to reach the pole after Peary claimed to have done it. With his mission accomplished, Plaisted told the *Twin Cities Pioneer Press:* "Boy, it's cold up there. I don't know why anyone would want to do it again."

Amy Briggs

Amy Briggs, Executive Editor

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Unearthed in Tanagra, Greece, ancient statuettes of women
caused a sensation in Europe in the 1870s with their vivid colors and graceful forms.

WORKERS WIDENING a highway in central France uncovered what is considered to be a late Neolithic site at Veyre-Monton in the Auvergne region. The rectangular area (above) covered a male skeleton, which was later exposed by archaeologists. Several large stones arranged in a horseshoe pattern were uncovered adjacent to the grave site.

©DENIS GLIKSMAN, INRAP

NG MAPS

MANY OF France's best known megalithic monuments, such as the Grand Menhir Brisé, are clustered in the Brittany region. The aligned menhirs at the Veyre-Monton complex are the first to have been found in central France.

MEGALITHIC MONUMENTS

The Mysterious Menhirs of Central France

Lines of stones and an enigmatic statue have been found far from France's other megalithic sites.

Thirty standing stones, a female form sculpted in rock, and the grave of a late Stone Age skeleton are raising new questions in central France. These remnants are the first of their kind to be found in this part of the country.

Unearthed near the village of Veyre-Monton in the Auvergne region, the stones—known as menhirs—measured three to five feet tall. They once stood erect, but like menhirs found in northern France, the Veyre-Monton stones were knocked over and buried long ago. Archaeologists still aren't quite sure why.

The site was excavated by France's archaeological

A SKELETON LIES UNDERNEATH WHAT WAS A COLLAPSED BURIAL CAIRN WHILE A MEMBER OF THE INRAP TEAM WORKS ALONGSIDE IT AT THE VEYRE-MONTON NEOLITHIC SITE IN FRANCE.
©DENIS GLIKSMAN/INRAP

THE STONES CAME TUMBLING DOWN

SIGNS THAT the menhirs at Veyre-Monton had, at some later stage in their history, been knocked down, remind archaeologists of similar destruction at other megalithic sites in France. Some of the menhirs discovered at Belz, on the Brittany peninsula in northwest France, are believed by archaeologists to have been deliberately toppled sometime in the late Neolithic. The practice is termed "neolithic iconoclasm" by scholars. Although sites were disturbed to repurpose stone for newer monuments, in other cases there may have been more destructive intentions. Vandalizing a monument, or making it invisible in the landscape, may have been a way of expressing a local change of beliefs. One of the most dramatic of all toppled menhirs is the Grand Menhir Brisé, also in Brittany. Some 64 feet long, it was believed to have been raised around 4500 B.C., but now it lies on the ground, broken into four large pieces. Although a lightning strike or earthquake have been put forward as hypotheses for its fall, many scholars believe it was brought down by human hands.

THE GRAND MENHIR BRISÉ IN MORBIHAN, BRITTANY, FRANCE
ROBERT ESTALL/AGE FOTOSTOCK

institute (Inrap). Stretching for about 500 feet, a line of these stones—arranged from largest to smallest—stretch across the site from north to south. Studies of the menhirs suggest they were brought from nearby places associated with prehistoric activity.

The Inrap team found that the menhirs, each weighing under a ton, had later been pushed over. A cairn over the grave had been intentionally flattened, and the stones that had been above the skeleton were found in a pit nearby.

A LIMESTONE MENHIR FROM VEYRE-MONTON BEARS SCULPTED ANTHROPOMORPHIC FEATURES, INCLUDING TWO SMALL BREASTS.
NINA PARISOT/INRAP

All of the menhirs at the site are basalt, except one: A limestone slab with crude human features—a head, rounded shoulders, and breasts—carved into its surface. No such statue-menhir has ever been found in the Auvergne before. Researchers are intrigued by the similarity of the design of the breasts with other statue-menhirs that have been found in northern France and Switzerland. How such a style came to be in a region so far south is just one question among many.

Mystery Date

Inrap experts calculate that the site was occupied over several millennia, from the Neolithic to the Bronze Age. This range indicates the site could date to anywhere between 6000 and 1000 B.C.

Archaeologists are still trying to more precisely determine the site's exact age. Objects left behind by human habitation often help to date sites. The Veyre-Monton site lacks such artifacts, so the team will use radiocarbon techniques to analyze the age of the male skeleton found at the site.

The Inrap team is hopeful that further study will shed light on who built this complex, for what purpose, and why later peoples decided to destroy it. ■

The Baroque Brilliance of Artemisia Gentileschi

A victim of violence in her youth, the 17th-century Italian painter later triumphed in Florence and London, leaving signs of a traumatic past in her dramatic works of art.

A Life in Art

1593

Artemisia Gentileschi is born in Rome, daughter of Orazio, a respected painter. She will hone her artistic talent in her father's studio.

1611

Gentileschi is violently assaulted by a family friend and teacher. She endures torturous examinations at his trial.

1616

Living in Florence, ruled by the Medici, Gentileschi becomes the first woman admitted to the Academy of Fine Arts.

1638

Invited to the English court by King Charles I, she travels to London. Her father will die the following year.

circa 1652

Gentileschi dies in Naples after several years of financial hardship.

Artemisia Gentileschi was an artist who knew the pitfalls of being a woman. As she wrote to her patron, Antonio Ruffo, in 1649, "I fear that before you saw the painting you must have thought me arrogant and presumptuous . . . You think me pitiful because a woman's name raises doubts until her work is seen."

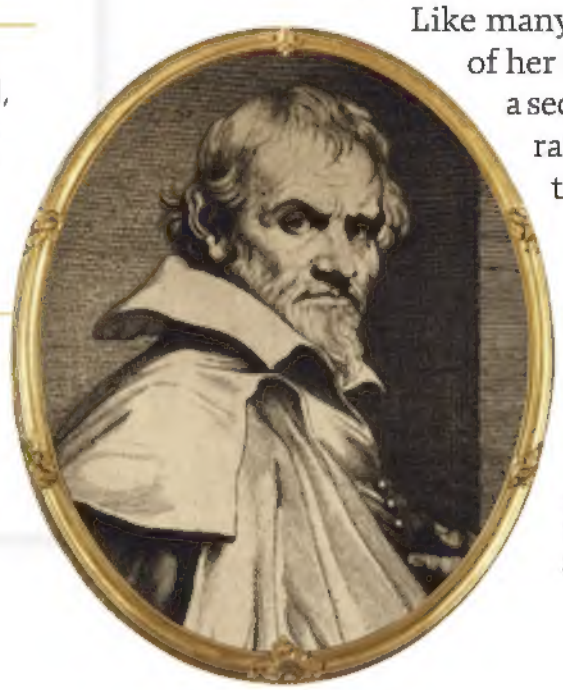
At age 56, she had achieved something close to impossible for a woman in 17th-century Italy: She had become a highly accomplished and successful painter. Yet, as admired as she was in her profession, she could still be wounded—as the letter to Ruffo shows—by prejudices arising against her gender. There were other troubles from the past to contend with, the legacy of which found expression in her greatest works.

Artemisia Gentileschi was born in Rome in 1593. Her father, Orazio, was a highly regarded painter. Her mother died in 1605, and Orazio did not remarry. At the age of 12, Artemisia became the matriarch of the Gentileschi family. Like many young girls of her time, she led a sequestered life, rarely allowed to venture outside except to attend church. She avoided being sent to a convent and instead spent long hours in her father's studio, which was part of their home. Women were apprenticed to artists' studios, the common practice for aspiring male painters of the time. She built on her natural talents by studying with her father.

The Italian art of Gentileschi's childhood had been shaken up by the dynamism, flamboyance, and theatricality of the baroque artist Michelangelo Merisi, better known as Caravaggio. Orazio was a fervent admirer of this dramatic painter, and his influence is evident in both Orazio's and his daughter's work. Her early paintings, works of precocious brilliance such as "Susanna and the Elders" (1610), completed when she was just 17, show clear traces of Caravaggio's distinctive style.

Violence and Vengeance

In 1612 Artemisia began to paint a popular subject: the biblical story of Judith beheading Holofernes, who threatens to destroy her home. In the story, the Assyrian general Holofernes desires the widow Judith; he calls her to his tent but passes out from drink. To protect her virtue and her people, she decapitates



ORAZIO GENTILESCHI, BY LUCAS VORSTERMAN. NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY, LONDON

SCALA, FLORENCE

Artemisia discovered her artistic vocation in the studio of her father, the painter Orazio Gentileschi.

PAINTING HERSELF PAINTING

IN THIS self-portrait, Gentileschi is paying homage to an artistic convention of the time: Presenting painting in allegorical form as a beautiful woman with disheveled, dark hair. It is widely believed now, however, that this is also a self-portrait, a naturalistic representation of the artist in the act of painting herself, with a brush in one hand and a palette in the other. It was probably produced in England around 1638, when she was 45 years old.

"SELF-PORTRAIT AS THE ALLEGORY OF PAINTING," CIRCA 1638, HAMPTON COURT PALACE, LONDON

BRIDGEMAN/ACI

him. The subject was popular among Renaissance artists, including Caravaggio. Most art historians believe Artemisia had personal reasons to paint this violent subject.

Agostino Tassi was a young painter who had befriended Orazio when both were working on a fresco in the palace of Cardinal Scipione Borghese. Orazio asked Tassi if he would instruct Artemisia on techniques in perspective. Tassi accepted the offer. In 1611, while her father was away working, Tassi persuaded Artemisia's chaperone to leave the two alone during their lesson. The neighbor left, and Tassi raped Artemisia. When he returned, Orazio denounced his former friend to the authorities. Tassi was brought to trial in 1612.

A transcript of the entire proceedings survives. It includes the following testimony from Artemisia Gentileschi: "He pushed me against the edge of the bed . . . and put his knee between my thighs so that I couldn't bring them together." In the confused aftermath of the assault, Tassi had promised that he would marry Artemisia. Rather than the violent assault, it was his broken promise of marriage that formed the centerpiece of the case against Tassi.

The trial was extremely unpleasant for Gentileschi. She was subjected to the indignity of a pelvic examination. She also lived in a time when it was believed that torture could be used for interrogation. She was made to endure thumbscrews. As the device was attached to her hands—the hands she needed to paint—she turned to Tassi with a terrible cry: "This is the ring you give me, and these are your promises!"

"JAEL AND SISERA"
Gentileschi's 1620 painting is inspired by the story in the Book of Judges in which the Israelite woman Jael kills the Canaanite general Sisera by driving a stake through his temple as he sleeps. Museum of Fine Arts, Budapest

SCALA, FLORENCE

Tassi was convicted and sentenced to exile, although he would use his connections to return to Rome. Soon after the trial, Gentileschi married Pierantonio Stiattesi, a painter from Florence, whose talent was far inferior to that of his wife. The extent of Gentileschi's affection for him is unclear, and their union may have been hastily arranged to distract from the scandal of the trial. Still, the couple moved to Florence, far away from Rome and the violent memories there.

Fame in Florence

Settled in Florence in a respectable marriage, Gentileschi bore two daughters (who would become painters like their mother). She resumed her painting career. Despite her colossal talent, male relatives were still necessary to help advance her career. In a 1612 letter to the powerful Christine of Lorraine, the mother of Cosimo II de'Medici, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, her father exhorted her in the following terms:

> *[She has] become so skilled that I can venture to say that today she has no peer. Indeed, she has produced works which demonstrate a level of understanding that perhaps even the principal masters of the profession have not attained.*

Gentileschi began to associate with some of the great Florentines of the age, such as the astronomer Galileo Galilei and Michelangelo the Younger. The latter—the great-nephew of Michelangelo—commissioned her to paint the "Allegory of Inclination" for the Casa Buonarotti. She painted the female nude so realistically (a self-portrait, according to some sources) that clothes were later painted over parts

FIRST HAND

AT THE HEIGHT of her career, Gentileschi was honored by artists and writers. The French portraitist Pierre Dumonstier II made this 1625 drawing of her right hand holding a paintbrush. The writer Antonio Collurafi dedicated poems to her, comparing her art with the wonders of Rome.

ARTEMISIA'S HAND, PIERRE DUMONSTIER II. BRITISH MUSEUM
THE TRUSTEES OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM/RMN-GRAND PALAIS

A DIFFERENT POINT OF VIEW

GENTILESCHI'S 1620 "Judith Beheading Holofernes" portrays an Old Testament story of the Israelite widow Judith who saved her people by assassinating the Assyrian general besieging her city. This work is Gentileschi's second known representation of the biblical story; an earlier version of Judith's revenge was begun in 1612, the year after the artist had been raped by an instructor. Although the Judith legend was a popular subject with male artists of the period, the decisiveness and strength of Gentileschi's Judith, as well as the solidarity of her female accomplice, provides a unique feminine perspective of violence and revenge in the early 17th century.

"JUDITH BEHEADING HOLOFERNES" (1620 VERSION), UFFIZI GALLERY, FLORENCE

BRIDGEMAN/AC

of the body. She entered the Florentine Academy of Fine Arts in 1616—the first woman to do so—and then established herself as one of the leading practitioners of the modern style of painting.

Two important features of Gentileschi's work were inspired by Caravaggio: tenebrism, the use of contrasts of light and deep shade to produce an effect of heightened emotion, and the naturalistic depiction of human figures. Although Caravaggio had acquired a host of imitators and disciples, Gentileschi managed to absorb his stylistic achievements while also developing a distinctive language of her own.

Her ability to express acute psychological insight is demonstrated in two works painted in 1620: "Jael and Sisera," based on the story in the Book of Judges in which the Israelite woman Jael kills an enemy general. She also painted a new version of her 1612–13 "Judith Beheading Holofernes." This iteration of her earlier treatment of the Judith story coincided with Gentileschi's 1620 return to Rome, scene of her childhood, rape, and trial.

The later version of the painting reveals her development as a painter. The figures in the later work show more refinement in terms of their composition. Perhaps the most distinctive change is Gentileschi's depiction of blood. In the first work, blood pools beneath Holofernes's neck, but in the second, it violently spurts forth in bold red strokes on the canvas.

An Independent Life

Gentileschi and her husband separated, granting her independence unique for her time. She traveled often with her daughters, spending time in Naples and Venice. In 1638, on the invitation of England's King Charles I, she joined her father Orazio in London, where both artists collaborated on paintings for the ceilings of the Great Hall in the Queen's House in Greenwich. After her father died the following year, she decided to stay in England. She painted portraits of such skill and brilliance that, according to one contemporary biographer, her fame surpassed that of her father. Gentileschi returned to Italy, probably in 1640 or 1641 and resided in Naples until her death around 1652.

For many years following her death, her work was forgotten, ignored, or misattributed. Her first version of the painting "Judith and Holofernes" from 1612 has often been credited to Caravaggio, while for many years it was assumed "Susanna and the Elders" was painted by her father. In the early 20th century, however, this most remarkable and brilliant of baroque painters started to enjoy a rebirth of admiration and respect.

—Alessandra Pagano

Prohibition Passes, and America Goes Dry

In the 1900s women's groups and religious leaders powered the U.S. temperance movement, promising Prohibition would usher in a golden age, free from the evils of alcohol. After the 18th Amendment went into effect, they would see just how wrong they were.

On January 16, 1920, brewing and selling alcoholic beverages became illegal in the United States as the 18th Amendment to the Constitution went into effect. This "noble experiment," as described by its backers, was celebrated by temperance advocates across the country. Before a crowd of 10,000 people, popular evangelist Billy Sunday (a former baseball player) said: "Tonight, one minute after midnight, a new nation will be born . . . An era of clear ideas and good manners begins. The slums will soon be a thing of the past. Prisons and reformatories will be emptied; we will transform them into attics and factories. Again, all men will walk straight, all women will smile, all children will laugh. The gates of hell have closed forever."

Prohibition would last for more than a decade, but the "new nation" promised by Sunday and others like him never arrived.

Temperance and Teetotalers

The 18th Amendment was ratified in January 1919, and it banned the "manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors" as well as their importation and exportation throughout the then 48 states. Several months later, Congress passed the Volstead Act to cover other alcoholic beverages, including beer and wine. The Volstead Act also allowed for a few exceptions, such as medicinal usage and use in sacred rites. Possession and

DESTRUCTIVE SPIRIT Government agents make a show of destroying cases of hard liquor and beer during Prohibition.

PHOTOQUEST/GETTY IMAGES

A NEW AGE FOR WOMEN

THE 1920S were an exciting time for American women who gained the right to vote when the 19th Amendment was passed shortly after Prohibition went into effect. In the cities, more young women were entering the workforce and enjoying the independence urban life afforded them, including enjoying a drink in mixed company at a local speakeasy. As it became clear that Prohibition was failing, many women became politically involved in repealing it. The Molly Pitcher Club, the Women's Organization for National Prohibition Reform, and the Women's Moderation Union all lobbied against the 18th Amendment until it was repealed in December 1933.

GAMMA-KEYSTONE/GETTY IMAGES

drinking were still legal since the law targeted those who supplied liquor, not those who consumed it.

Prohibition's history stretches back into the 19th century when religious groups and social organizations, such as the American Temperance Society, fought against the "scourge of alcohol" and drunkenness. In the 1850s Maine and other states experimented with laws banning alcohol, but local opposition brought about their eventual reversal.

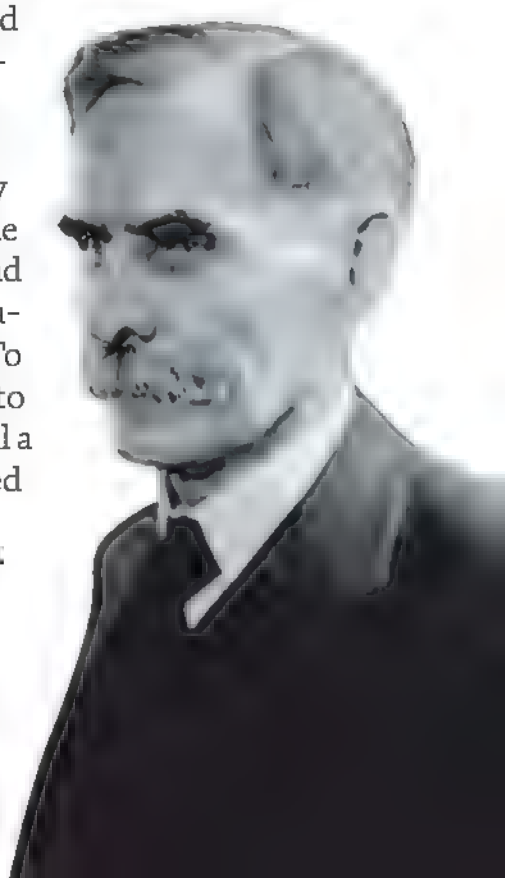
Women's groups played a significant role. Activists argued that drink fueled violence in the home as drunken husbands would beat their wives and children. Temperance advocates argued that alcohol abuse caused poverty. In the 1870s the Woman's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) launched a major campaign to prohibit alcohol in support of the crusade mounted by the Prohibition Party, founded in 1869. Teetotalers, a 19th-century term for people who abstained from all alcohol, even made it to the White House. President Rutherford B. Hayes and his wife Lucy did not drink alcohol nor would they serve it in the White House.

In the 1890s this campaigning effort was boosted by a well-organized lobbying group, the Anti-Saloon League (ASL). Some employed prayers against the dens of alcoholic damnation, while others attacked them physically, such as the activist Carry Nation, who was notorious for using a hatchet to vandalize bars in the 1900s.

Calls for a "dry" America continued into the 1910s. World War I brought gains for them when Congress approved a ban on alcohol for the duration of the war. They continued to pressure Congress for a prohibition amendment. Legislation was approved by both houses of Congress, and in January 1919, it was ratified after three-fourths of the states had passed it. It would go into effect in January 1920. Wayne Wheeler of the ASL worked with Representative Andrew Volstead to write the Volstead Act (formally known as the National Prohibition Act), which outlined how the new amendment would be applied and enforced.

Rumrunners and Bootleggers

Criminals looked at the new law and saw an opportunity for profit. The United States was surrounded by nations that made spirits: Canada had whisky, and the Caribbean had rum. To sneak alcohol into the U.S. market, all a bootlegger needed

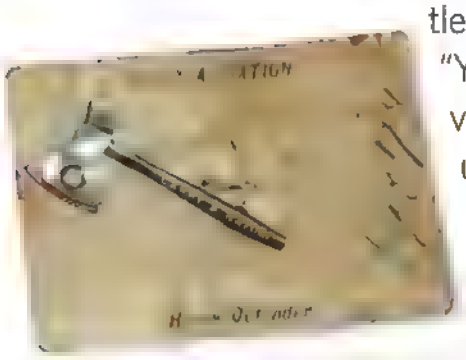


REPRESENTATIVE ANDREW J. VOLSTEAD WAS THE DRIVING FORCE BEHIND PROHIBITION AND THE 18TH AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS/GETTY IMAGES

Prayers and Hatchets

RELIGION PLAYED a crucial role in the activities of female temperance activists. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union was founded in 1874 to influence states to adopt anti-alcohol legislation. Singing and praying, activists visited saloons in the hope that piety would close their doors. Some activists went further: Carry Nation, a temperance activist who also supported women's suffrage, used rocks and even an ax to break bottles and bust up bars: "You refused me the vote, and I had to use a rock," she said.



AFP/GETTY IMAGES

WOMEN SINGING HYMNS AT THE DOOR TO A SALOON, PRAYING FOR THE CONVERSION OF DRINKERS, IN AN ILLUSTRATION FROM 1900.

BETTMANN/GETTY IMAGES

was money, transportation, and muscle. Thousands of thirsty American customers would pay higher prices for booze, so potential profits were massive.

Bootleggers operated in cities across the United States. In Detroit the Purple Gang controlled local distribution coming in from Canada. In New York Italian immigrants formed the Five Families and kept the city "wet." Charles "Lucky" Luciano became New York's top bootlegger by working with boss Arnold Rothstein and gangsters like Dutch Schultz. In Chicago Al "Scarface" Capone and Johnny Torrio formed "The Outfit" to control liquor distribution in the city. Capone grew rich off of crime: Some sources put his estimated annual income around $60 million. As operations expanded and became more complex, gangsters began to organize. They hired more people: lawyers, brewers, boat captains, and truckers. They purchased defunct breweries and began cooking up their own "hooch" for sale.

Crime families initially limited activity to their local area, but rivalries and conflict soon broke out as they sought to expand. Rivalries often resulted in violence: shootings, bombings, and murders. Capone's taste for violence was notorious, and he consolidated control over bootlegging in Chicago by killing his enemies.

The most famous incident associated with him was the St. Valentine's Day Massacre in February 1929. Seven men in the Irish mob were shot in a garage on Chicago's North Side. Many believe Capone ordered the murders to eliminate his rival Bugs Moran.

CRIME ON THE BIG SCREEN

PUBLIC FASCINATION with gangsters and molls inspired Hollywood to create big-screen versions of real-life violence in the early 1930s: *Little Caesar* (1931), starring Edward G. Robinson; *The Public Enemy* (1931), with James Cagney; and *Scarface* (1932), with Paul Muni starring as a fictionalized version of Al Capone.

UNITED ARTISTS/ALBUM

END OF AN ERA
The first truck loaded with beer crosses the threshold of New York City's Ruppert Brewery following the end of Prohibition on December 5, 1933.

ULLSTEIN BILD/GETTY IMAGES

Speakeasies and Gin Joints

Customers looking for alcohol would go to underground businesses called speakeasies or gin joints. In the city of New York alone, 15,000 saloons existed in 1920 prior to Prohibition. After the law's passage, the number increased dramatically. Exact counts vary, but historians put the number anywhere between 32,000 and 100,000 establishments. Some were modest places that sold cheap booze, while others were stylish nightclubs that featured cocktails, jazz music, and dancing.

Fueled by bootleg alcohol, the 1920s became known as the jazz age, a term coined by F. Scott Fitzgerald, author of *The Great Gatsby* (1925). During this time, women were enjoying greater freedoms, in part because they achieved the right to vote in 1920. They shook off older social conventions and embraced speakeasy culture not only by drinking cocktails but also by defying social conventions. Nicknamed "flappers," they bobbed their hair, wore shorter, loose-fitting dresses, smoked cigarettes, and danced.

In New York City three women—Texas Guinan, Helen Morgan and Belle Livingstone—ran some of the city's swankiest nightclubs where men and women could mingle and drink in the nightlife during the 1920s to early '30s. Celebrities such as Babe Ruth, Charles Lindbergh, Charlie Chaplin, Rudolph Valentino, and Clara Bow were often spotted at nightclubs.

A New Amendment

Crime syndicates had grown and gained power by corrupting local authorities. Attempts to thwart bootleggers proved futile, and public opinion, especially in cities, turned against Prohibition. By 1927 it was plain to see that the "noble experiment" was a disaster. To end Prohibition would take nothing short of an amendment.

Change came after the 1932 presidential election when Franklin D. Roosevelt won a landslide victory against sitting president Herbert Hoover. In February 1933 both houses of Congress passed drafts of the 21st Amendment and sent it to the states for ratification. It was ratified by December that same year. The 21st Amendment repealed the 18th, ending the noble experiment.

Ending Prohibition yielded good things for the government, which benefited from tax revenue on alcohol that helped combat the Great Depression plaguing the nation. Pop culture seemed to echo the sentiment as songs like "Happy Days Are Here Again" and "Cocktails for Two" rang out and bubbled to everyone's lips.

—Enric Ucelay-Da Cal

PERSIAN DEFEAT
The Persians flee Marathon on this Roman sarcophagus from the second century B.C. Opposite, a detail from 5th-century B.C. pottery shows a Greek hoplite slaying a Persian.

SCALA, FLORENCE. OPPOSITE: BRIDGEMAN/ACI

PUSHING BACK PERSIA

THE BATTLE OF MARATHON

The Greek victory against the vastly superior forces of the Persian Empire at the Battle of Marathon in 490 B.C. was the beginning of the Athenian Golden Age and became a foundation of Athenian identity.

JAVIER NEGRETE

Buildup to Marathon

499 B.C.
Ionian Greeks in Asia Minor rise up against Persia. Athens sends ships to their aid, which will provoke King Darius I to seek revenge.

494 B.C.
Following their victory at the naval Battle of Lade, the Persians destroy Miletus, the stronghold of Ionian resistance against Darius.

492 B.C.
Darius sends an expeditionary force to conquer Greece, but the Persian fleet is wrecked in a storm.

Summer 490 B.C.
A Persian force crosses the Aegean, takes Eretria, and lands at Marathon. An Athenian-Plataean alliance forms to fight them there.

September 490 B.C.
After the Greeks crush the Persians at Marathon, they march back to Athens to successfully deter the Persians from attacking it.

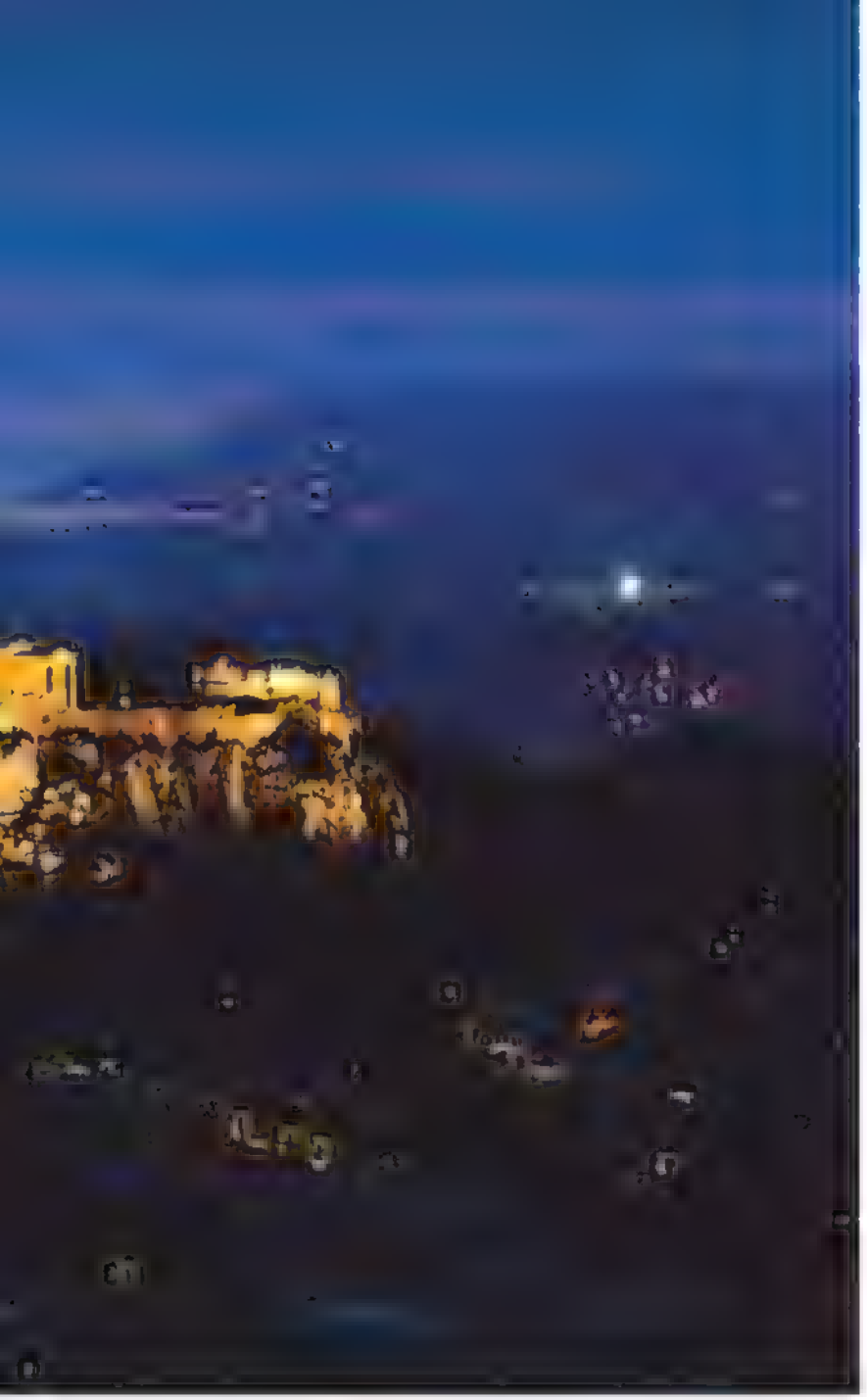
DARIUS I ON HIS THRONE. IN A LATE SIXTH-CENTURY B.C. RELIEF FROM PERSEPOLIS
BRIDGEMAN/ACI

SHINING CITY ON A HILL
The Acropolis of Athens (above) was rebuilt in the years following the Persian wars. It remains a symbol of Athenian pride in their triumph over Persia.
LUCA DA ROS/FOTOTECA 9X12

When dawn broke one summer morning in 490 B.C., Greek troops stood ready for battle on the coastal plain near Marathon, northeast of Athens. They awaited the charge of their mighty enemy: the powerful hosts of Persia, led by Darius the Great. His relentless expansion was headed westward, toward the heart of the ancient Greek world, a society he aimed to subjugate.

The Battle of Marathon marked a turning point in the wars between Greece and Persia. Prior to this defeat, the Persian Empire seemed unbeatable. Other leaders and other forces had fallen before its might, but the Battle of Marathon revealed that Persia, too, had weaknesses.

The victory became a bright, shining moment in the history of Athens. It inspired numerous legends and tales, including one in which the Athenian hero Theseus visits the battlefield to inspire the Greek forces to beat back their enemies. Millennia later, the battle would even provide an origin story for a long-distance Olympic event: the marathon.



MAP: FOSGIS.COM

THE PERSIAN THREAT

IN 492 B.C. the Persian king Darius I sought to punish the Greeks for their support of a local rebellion, which had been centered in the Ionian Greek city of Miletus. Soon after, Persian rule was reestablished in Thrace. In the summer of 490 B.C., the Persian fleet, led by Datis, attacked the Cyclades, where they conquered Naxos and Paros, then destroyed Eretria and finally landed in Marathon.

Persian Might

The buildup to Marathon began years before, and is chronicled by the fifth-century B.C. Greek historian Herodotus. He wrote about the battle some 30 years after it happened, and his text is one of the main sources on the event.

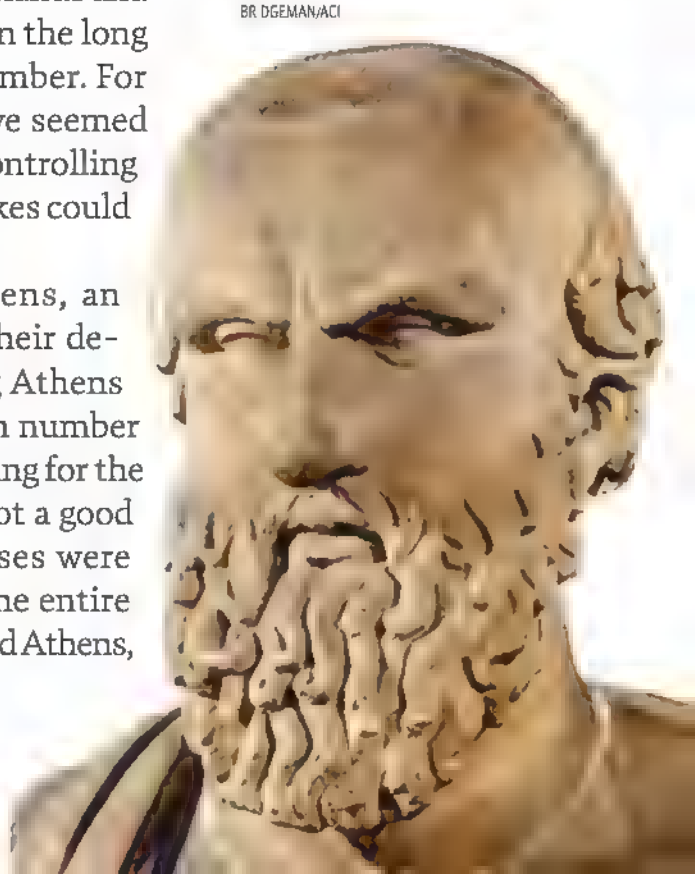
The mighty Persian Empire was led by Darius I, the third Persian king of the Achaemenid dynasty, who took power around 522 B.C. Persia reached its peak under Darius's rule, as its lands sprawled from Turkey to the edge of India. Darius sought to control the Aegean and moved his forces to conquer parts of the Greek world—including Thrace, Macedonia, Ionia, and the Aegean Islands.

By the end of the sixth century B.C., Athens grew alarmed by the westward extension of Persian influence. In 499 B.C. Ionian Greeks revolted against Persia, and Athens moved to support them. The Athenians sent ships and soldiers to help aid the rebels and beat back the empire.

A Persian victory at the naval Battle of Lade in 494 crushed the Ionian rebellion, but Darius was infuriated by the Athenians' insolence. He swore revenge. He also must have recognized that the city-state must be subdued in order to control the eastern Mediterranean.

In the summer of 490 B.C., Darius sent 600 ships carrying an army of some 25,000 men over the Aegean, under the command of Admiral Datis. After laying waste to islands and cities, Datis's fleet made landfall on the long beach of Marathon in early September. For the Persians, this battle would have seemed a minor obstacle on their path to controlling the Aegean. For the Greeks, the stakes could not have been higher.

When the news reached Athens, an emergency assembly convened. Their decision was a difficult one. Leaving Athens to fight an army vastly superior in number was extremely dangerous. But waiting for the Persians to come to Athens was not a good option either, as the city's defenses were weak. Sheltering and protecting the entire population of Attica, the region around Athens, would also be impossible.



BATTLE DRAMA
Aeschylus, depicted in this Roman bust, fought at Marathon, and went on to win literary fame as one of the three great tragedians of classical Athens.
BRIDGEMAN/ACI

A PERSIAN HELMET, POSSIBLY FROM THE BATTLE OF MARATHON, LEFT AS AN OFFERING BY THE ATHENIANS AT THE SANCTUARY OF ZEUS IN OLYMPIA
ALAMY/CORDON PRESS

MOMENT OF VICTORY

THE ATHENIANS *were drawn up for battle in the order which here follows: On the right flank, Callimachus was leader . . . and after him came the tribes in order as they were numbered one after another . . . Their army, once it had been deployed equal in length to that of the Persians they faced, had in the center but few ranks. And although [the Greek] army was weak here, each flank was nevertheless strengthened with numbers. And when they had been arranged in their places and the sacrifices proved favorable, then the Athenians set forth at a run to attack . . . The Persians broke the ranks [of the center], but on both flanks the Athenians were winning the victory . . . And they brought together their two flanks to attack those who had broken their center, and so the Athenians won the day.*

Herodotus, *The Histories*, Book VI

COMBAT BETWEEN A PERSIAN HORSEMAN AND A HOPLITE ON A PELIKE FROM THE FIFTH CENTURY B.C. NATIONAL MUSEUM, WARSAW
ERICH LESSING/ALBUM

MAP: JEROME COTA

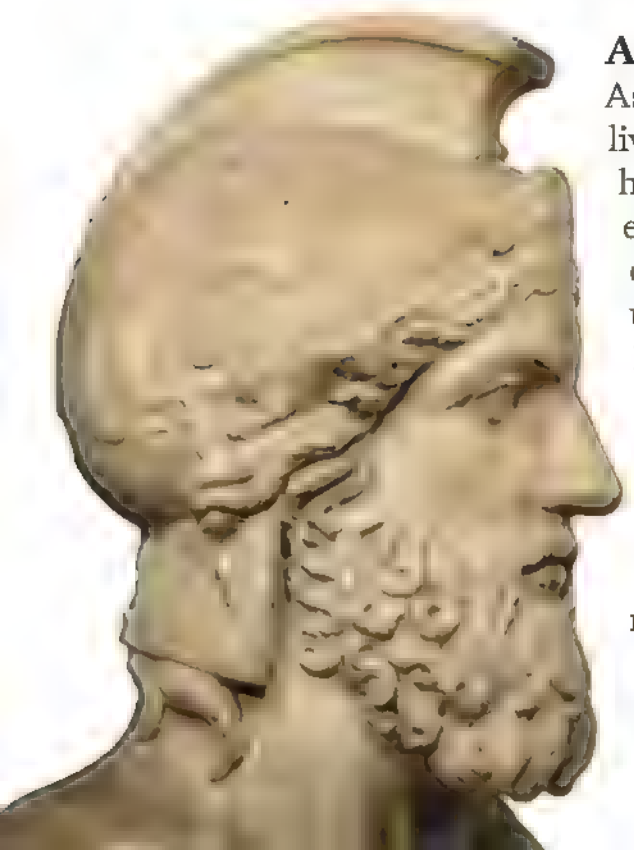
1 **The Persian fleet** anchors at Marathon and Datis's army disembarks. On September 11, the Persian cavalry are taken by ship down the coast, possibly as part of a plan to attack Athens, which was undefended.

2 **Following the** Persian disembarkation, the Greeks take up positions on the southwest of the plain to control the two roads leading to Athens.

3 **As dawn breaks** on September 12, the Greeks decide to attack, having learned that the horsemen had left the plain and were, in all likelihood, heading toward Athens.

④ Miltiades thins out the Greek line in order to extend the flanks. Even though the Athenian center gives way, the flanks succeed in surrounding the center of the Persian army, which is vanquished.

⑤ The defeated Persians flee from the battlefield to return to their ships still at anchor. Greek casualties are counted in hundreds, the Persians in thousands.



COMMANDING PRESENCE

Miltiades (below, in a Roman copy of a Greek bust) led the Greek forces at Marathon. Louvre Museum, Paris

RMN-GRAND PALAIS

After much debate, the assembly voted on a proposal put forward by Miltiades, the most charismatic of the 10 commanders leading the Athenian army. Convinced by Miltiades' arguments, the Athenians mobilized and sent a messenger to the Spartans to ask for their aid, as Athens and Sparta had agreed to a mutual defense pact against the Persians.

Armed and Dangerous

As the envoy made his way to Sparta to deliver the plea for reinforcements, 10,000 hoplites marched to Marathon. The presence of allies from the central Greek city of Plataea brought the Greek numbers up to around 11,000. In addition to the Plataean battalion, the Greek hosts consisted of 10 battalions, one for each of the tribes or administrative divisions in Athens.

Each hoplite wielded an eight-foot spear made of ash, while his body armor consisted of a breastplate, helmet, and greaves, all made of bronze. The most important defensive item was a large wooden shield covered in bronze. The shield was positioned in such a way that almost half of it extended past the soldier's left side and protected the hoplite standing next to him. This interlocking "wall" of shields protected the hoplite phalanx. The keys to its success were its cohesion and unity: While the wall remained closed, it was virtually impenetrable.

Among the Greek hoplites was 35-year-old Aeschylus, soon to become—along with Euripides and Sophocles—one of the three great tragedians of classical Athens. Aeschylus's experiences in this and other battles would later inspire one of his most famous plays, *The Persians*. Aeschylus and his brothers-in-arms had cause for trepidation that morning: The Persians, comprising as many as 25,000 soldiers, outnumbered them considerably, and were backed up in the bay behind the battleground by their huge navy.

Among the things that the Greeks most feared were the Persian archers, famous for their skill and accuracy. Even though Greek

THE CLASH OF BRONZE AND LEATHER

When they clashed, Persian and Greek forces used different materials for their protection. A Greek hoplite carried ① a large shield, called a *hoplon* (from which hoplites got their name), which was made of wood and coated with bronze. They also wore ② bronze greaves to protect their legs. Most donned ③ Corinthian-style helmets, but some might have worn ④ Attic helmets. The Persian troops were highly organized. One officer, a *dathapati*, led a unit of 10 men, a *dathaba*. An officer stood before his men and protected them with ⑤ a *straba*, a large, lightweight shield made of reeds and leather. Some Persian soldiers wore ⑥ padded linen breastplates, whereas others preferred ⑦ cuirasses made of metal strips fixed to leather. Although armed with short swords and spears, bows and arrows were the Persians' weapons of choice.

RICHARD HOOK/OSPREY PUBLISHING

hoplites were formidable in hand-to-hand combat, hails of Persian arrows had to be endured first. Their adversaries were also buoyed with confidence: Darius I's army was formidable and had enjoyed a string of victories.

On the Run

For days, the two armies kept a wary eye on each other from a distance, engaging in nothing more than minor skirmishes. The Athenians were hesitant to march out onto the open plain, where the enemy horsemen could outflank them and attack from the rear while the Persian archers shot at them from the front. For their part, the Persians did not dare attack the solid position taken up by the Greeks on the mountainside. The Persian leader Datis was mindful that the Spartan reinforcements would arrive soon to support the Athenians. He was losing time.

What Datis did next has puzzled historians: He sent his cavalry onto his boats and sailed them down the coast, presumably in a bid to try and take the undefended city of Athens. His withdrawal of such a vital component of his forces may also have been intended to lure the Athenians into battle with his infantry before the Greeks' Spartan allies arrived.

The Greeks convened a hurried war council at night. Some advocated returning to defend Athens, leaving thousands of enemies at their back. But Miltiades, whose turn it was to command that day, convinced the other nine generals that the best plan was to go out and fight on the plain even though the Spartans had not yet arrived. The Persians were known for their tactic of sending in their cavalry once their enemy had been weakened by repeated waves of arrows. With the cavalry off the scene, the Greeks believed they stood a much better chance of a hoplite-led victory.

On the morning of September 12, as the priests made sacrifices to the gods and the

With the Persian cavalry off the scene, the Greeks believed they stood a much better chance of a hoplite-led victory.

CAPE OF THE SEA GOD

Persian commander Datis sent, the Persian fleet round Cape Sounion to invade Athens. The ruins of this temple dedicated to Poseidon, god of the sea, still stand there today. It was built around 440 B.C., just decades after the war with Persia.

TOMAS MAREK/ALAMY/CORDON PRESS

PHEIDIPPIDES DELIVERS NEWS OF THE VICTORY AT MARATHON. OIL PAINTING BY LUC-OLIVIER MERSON.

ENSBA/RMN-GRAND PALAIS

THE FIRST MARATHON

Messengers play a big part in the legends of Marathon, but they appear at different parts in the story. One account of a messenger first comes from Herodotus's *Histories*, in which a runner, Pheidippides, is dispatched from Athens to Sparta to plead for reinforcements before the battle takes place. He successfully delivers his message in Sparta the next day—an astonishing feat, given that he would have had to run 155 miles. In the more familiar, modern version, a herald runs the more plausible 26 miles from Marathon to Athens to deliver news of victory. He arrives, exclaiming "Joy, we win!" before dying of exhaustion. This tale has its roots in the writings of later Greco-Roman authors such as Plutarch, and inspired the creation of the 26-mile race, known as a marathon following the revival of the Olympic Games in 1896.

generals rallied the men in each tribe, the Greeks contemplated who they would be fighting. In the front line were the *sparabara*, who bore shields the size of doors made of reeds and leather. Behind them were rows of archers who could shoot volleys of arrows so fast that the second was whistling through the air before the first had landed. A Spartan would say years later that when the Persians fired their arrows, they blocked out the sun.

At last, the Athenian troops and their allies took up their shields and advanced. In his *Histories*, Herodotus vividly described their advance as seen by the incredulous Persians:

> *The space between the armies was not less than eight stades: and the Persians seeing them advancing to the attack at a run, made preparations to receive them; and in their minds they charged the Athenians with madness which must be fatal, seeing that they were few and yet were pressing forwards at a run, having neither cavalry nor archers.*

"Eight stades" is roughly a mile. Herodotus's implication that the Greeks covered all of this distance at a run has been contested by most modern historians, as the weight of their armor and weapons would have left them exhausted. It seems likelier they marched at a normal pace to the point where the Persian arrows could reach them when Miltiades gave the order to charge.

The hoplites' speed minimized the amount of time they were exposed to the barrage of arrows. Such a charge could not have lasted for much more than 30 seconds. Once the dash was over, those hoplites who survived could fight hand to hand and press the advantage of better protection from their sturdier shields.

The hoplites in the front row were driven forward by those behind them and began to press into the enemy, cutting them down as they advanced. The Persians' high-ranking officers were well armed, but the infantry around them began to fall.

THE DARIUS VASE DEPICTS THE PERSIAN RULER ON HIS THRONE. 340-310 B.C. NATIONAL ARCHAEOLOGICAL MUSEUM, NAPLES

SCALA, FLORENCE

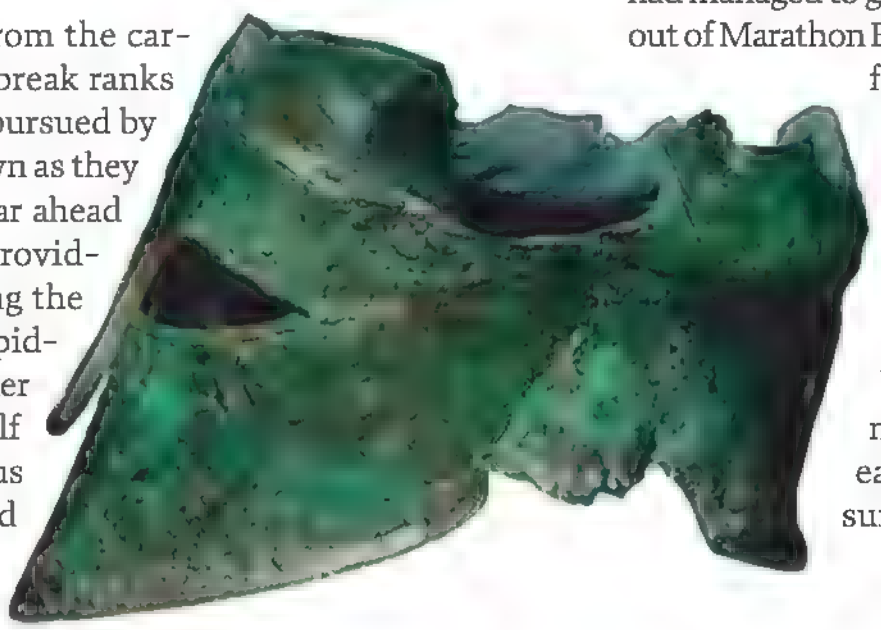
The center of the Greek lines bore the brunt of the Persian defense. Miltiades had chosen to thin out the ranks in order to extend the line, and so forestall any outflanking maneuvers. Consequently, the Greek troops were only four men deep instead of the usual eight. Overwhelmed, the Athenians in the center lines were unable to contain the enemy. The Persians broke through the center, but the Greek troops on both flanks wheeled inward and surrounded the enemy forces, who were then massacred.

In an attempt to escape from the carnage, the Persians began to break ranks and flee toward their ships, pursued by the Greeks who cut many down as they fled. Some hoplites got too far ahead and so lost the protection provided by their comrades. Among the Greeks who advanced too rapidly was Aeschylus's own brother Cynaegirus, who threw himself onto an enemy ship. Herodotus records that "while taking hold there of the ornament at the stern of a ship, he had his hand cut off with an ax and fell; and many others also of the Athenians who were men of note were killed."

A VICTOR'S HELMET

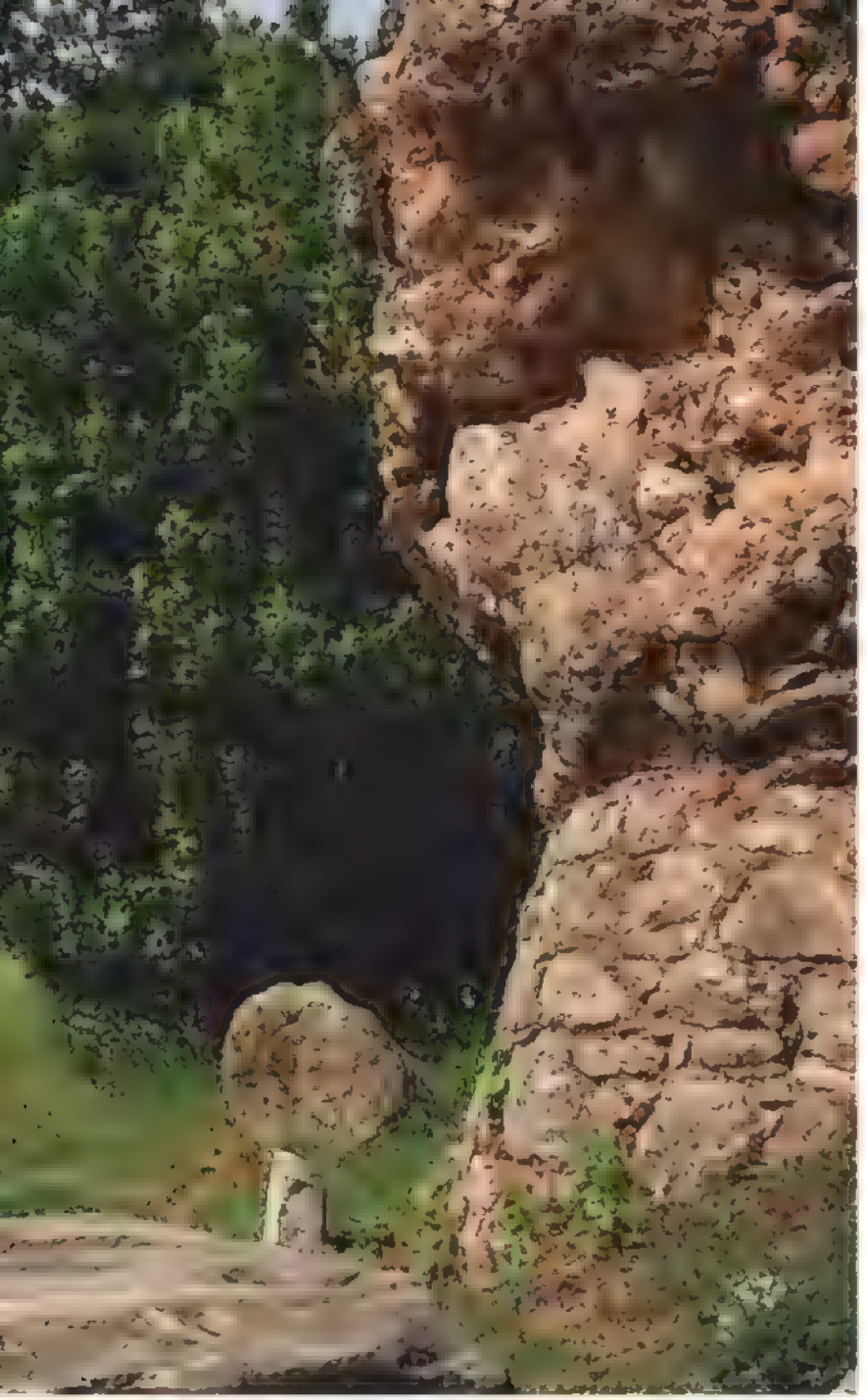
An inscription on a Corinthian bronze helmet (below) records that it was presented by Greek commander Miltiades as an offering to Zeus. Archaeological Museum of Olympia

BRIDGEMAN/ACI



When the fallen were counted, there were fewer than 200 Greek casualties, including one general. Persian losses totaled more than 6,000. Despite this resounding victory, the Athenians had only captured seven Persian ships; some of the Persian navy was already approaching Athens on the boats sent the day before. Datis had managed to get most of the rest of his fleet out of Marathon Bay in his bid to attack Athens from the western coast.

The exhausted Greek troops were marched overland back to the capital. The dash home paid off: Datis did not find the city defenseless, as he had hoped, but protected by the same army that had routed him hours earlier. Realizing it would be suicide to disembark, he gave



SCALA FLORENCE

THE TOMB OF THE BRAVE

THE FUNERARY MOUND containing the bodies of the Athenians who fell at Marathon still marks the plain. Based on Herodotus's account, historians believe the tumulus marks the site where the charging Greek hoplites encountered the barrage of Persian arrows. Historians have used the mound to calculate the rough position of both armies before and during the battle.

his ships the order to raise anchor and retreat. Soon after the last Persian boat disappeared over the horizon, Spartan reinforcements arrived to discover it was all over.

Taking Stock

At the battleground the Greeks buried their dead. Their sacrifice would become an important part of Athenian heritage: The memory of Marathon would rally Greek spirits when the Persian fleet returned a few years later to try, once again, to subdue Athens.

Historians have no substantial Persian sources to draw upon for the Battle of Marathon. One late classical writer quotes an anonymous Persian soldier, who claims the battle was an "unimportant failure." This assessment was not wide of the mark. The Persian military had been rebuffed, not permanently expelled. Marathon was just the first of a series of harsh tests that the city of Athens had to face. In 480 B.C. the Athenians were forced to watch as Athens was put to the torch by Xerxes, Darius's son.

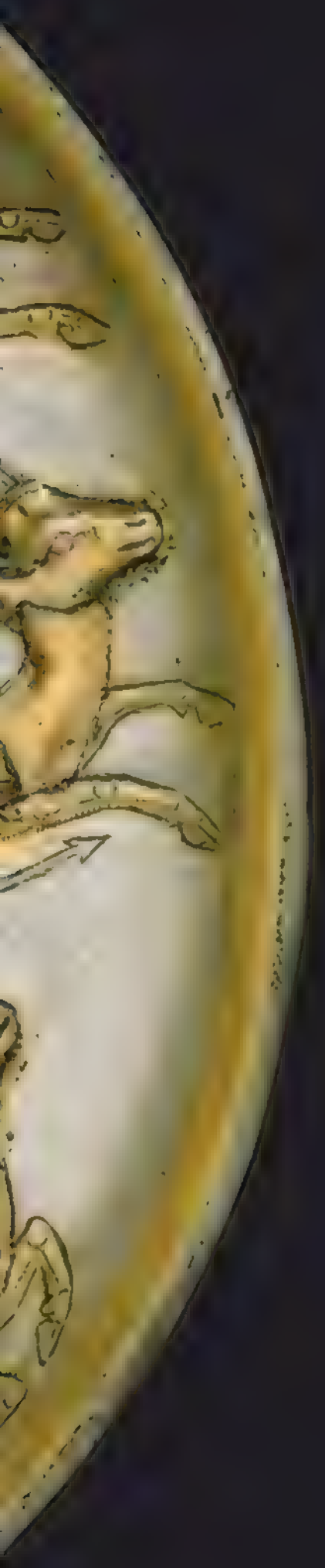
Nevertheless, Marathon marked the first in a series of spectacular Greek victories in the Greco-Persian wars, culminating in the battles of Salamis in 480 B.C. and Plataea in 479, which finally ended the Persian threat. These events secured Athens militarily and inspired a cultural flowering as well. The victory at Marathon was not only documented in Herodotus's *Histories,* but also in a wider outpouring of art, sculpture, and architecture. They inspired Aeschylus to write *The Persians*, his play set in the aftermath of the Persians' final defeat.

So important was the memory of Marathon to Aeschylus that on his death in Sicily in 456 B.C., his epitaph makes no mention of the fact that he had been awarded the prize for the best tragic playwright in the Athenian festival, the Dionysia. It states, instead: "Beneath this stone lies Aeschylus . . . of his noble prowess the grove of Marathon can speak, and the long-haired Persian knows it well."

AUTHOR AND HISTORIAN JAVIER NEGRETE HAS WRITTEN EXTENSIVELY ON CLASSICAL GREEK HISTORY AND MYTHOLOGY

PERSIAN OPULENCE
The fifth-century Sassanian ruler Bahram V hunts gazelles on a silver platter. The Metropolitan Museum, New York. Opposite: An enthroned Sassanian king forms the center of a fifth or sixth-century bowl inlaid with garnet and other gems. National Library of France, Paris

MMA/RMN-GRAND PALAIS. **OPPOSITE:** BNF/RMN-GRAND PALAIS

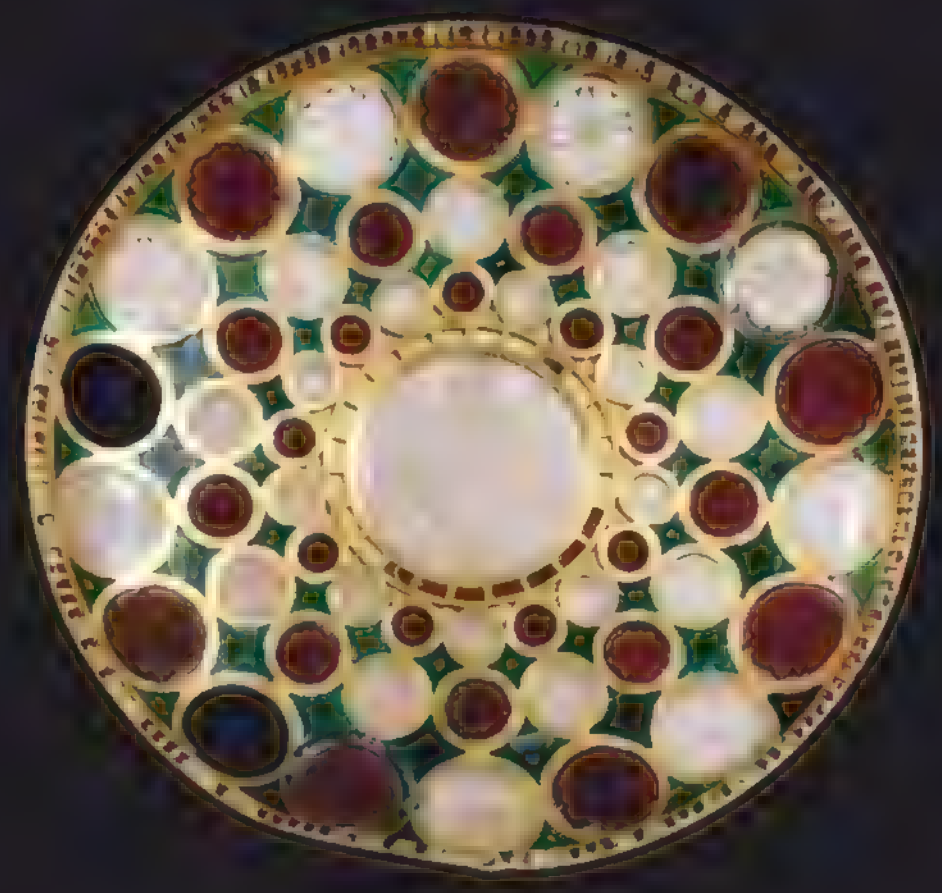


PERSIAN EMPIRE REBORN

SASSANIAN SPLENDOR

In A.D. 224, a Persian nobleman toppled the Parthians to become the sole ruler of lands stretching from Turkey to Pakistan. Inspired by Persia's imperial past, the Sassanians shaped the landscape, faiths, and scholarship of western Asia.

MIGUEL ÁNGEL ANDRÉS-TOLEDO



Alexander the Great conquered Persia in 331 B.C. and ended the Achaemenid Empire founded by Cyrus the Great. For the next five centuries, the Iranian plateau became ruled by other empires, until a new Persian dynasty took power. Fiercely proud of their roots, these new kings—the Sassanians—restored the might of their ancestors, drawing on their past to become feared conquerors, grand builders, and artistic patrons.

For more than four centuries the Sassanians dominated western Asia, expanding their empire and gaining lands from the Roman and Byzantine empires in the west and the Kushan empire in the east. To strengthen their connection to the past, they honored their leaders by carving reliefs of their deeds at Naqsh-e Rostam, the traditional resting place of the Achaemenid kings. Zoroastrianism became the state faith, and the government became centralized.

Sassanians grew wealthy, enriched by the trading routes (including the Silk Road) that passed through their realm. Centered in what is now Iran, the Sassanian empire was home to diverse ethnicities and cultures. It was known for its libraries, vast centers of learning, and soaring achievements in monumental art and architecture. By looking backward, the Sassanians moved their culture forward.

Return of the Persians

In the third century B.C., the Parthian Empire was born after overthrowing the heirs of Alexander the Great. Hailing from the northeastern region of Khorasan in present-day Iran, they controlled the area for roughly 400 years. Parthian culture was heterogeneous and had been strongly influenced by the Hellenistic legacy of Alexander. As Parthia grew more powerful, it rivaled the strength of Rome.

Although there were many conflicts between Rome and Parthia, a local revolt is what took down Parthian power in A.D. 224. Forces from Persis, a region in what is now southwest Iran, fought back against the Parthians. Their leader, a Persian prince named Papak, came from a noble family and was descended from a Zoroastrian priest, Sasan. Papak gave his son, Ardashir, a military command. Ardashir proved a successful commander and was able to seize control of several local cities in the early 200s.

Ardashir's forces swallowed up more and more territory until he finally defeated the last of the Parthian kings and occupied their royal seat at Ctesiphon (near Baghdad in modern Iraq). Ardashir would become the first king of a new Persian dynasty, named after his grandfather, Sasan. To strengthen his ties to Persia's imperial past, Ardashir adopted the traditional title *Shahanshah* ("king of kings"), as had the great rulers before him.

HORSE'S HEAD MADE OF SILVER AND GILDED SILVER FROM KERMAN. FOURTH CENTURY

AKG/ALBUM

THE LAST DYNASTY

224
Ardashir I defeats the last Parthian king, and becomes the first ruler of the Sassanian dynasty, reestablishing Persian might.

260
Shapur I captures the Roman emperor Valerian. His triumphs against Rome are matched in the east, where Sassanian control extends into modern-day Pakistan.

Volga R.
Lake Baikal
Aral Sea
Jaxartes R.
CAUCASUS MTS.
CASPIAN SEA
Trebizond
ARMENIA
Merv
Gurgan
KHORASAN
Edessa
Amol
Bactria
Hamadan
Nishapur
MEDIA
Kabul
Dura Europos
Taq-e Bostan
SASSANIAN EMPIRE
Herat
Ctesiphon
Babylon
Gondishapur
Esfahan
Yazad
Kerman
Naqsh-e Rostam
Persepolis
PARS
Shiraz
Hormuz
Tiz
ARABIA
ARABIAN SEA

380
As Christianity becomes the state religion of the Roman Empire, the Sassanians begin Christian persecution.

531-579
Khosrow I's reign sees major reforms in administration. Gondishapur becomes a major center of knowledge in the known world.

628
The murder of Khosrow II signals a period of Sassanian decline, as warfare against the Byzantine Empire has weakened the state.

651
Fifteen years after Arabs take the Sassanian capital of Ctesiphon, the last Sassanian king, Yazdegerd III, is killed in Merv.

EDSITS.COM

ROYAL HALLS The Sassanian royal seat at Ctesiphon was once dominated by the arch-covered courtyard known as an *iwan*. Historians dispute whether the ruins pictured were built in the third or sixth century.

AKG/ALBUM

Ardashir reigned for nearly two decades and brought a new vision to the empire. He began to centralize power in order to consolidate his lands. Zoroastrianism, the traditional faith of his Persian ancestors, was installed as the official state religion to help strengthen his family's claims to the throne. Ardashir also looked to expand the empire and continued to press any and all advantages his forces had against the Parthians' old enemy, Rome. He would co-rule with his son, the future king Shapur I.

Imperial Expansion

Taking power in A.D 241, Shapur I built on his father's grand vision. His expansionist ambitions were reflected in the title he adopted: "King of Iran and of non-Iran." He continued to wage military campaigns on the Roman Empire's eastern borders and found success during a time of political and economic instability for Rome.

Shapur's troops killed the Roman emperor Gordian near Ctesiphon in 244. Philip the Arabian, Rome's next emperor, had to sue for peace, an event gleefully recorded in Sassanian sources: "He gave us 500,000 dinars and became our tributary. For that reason, we renamed [Shapur] as 'Victorious is Shapur.'"

For two decades Shapur continued to devastate Roman Syria and Turkey. Roman humiliation peaked with Sassanian forces capturing Emperor Valerian at the Battle of Edessa in 260. Some Persian sources paint a dramatic picture of the humiliations he suffered: When Shapur wanted to mount his horse, it was said that Valerian was dragged to him and forced to be the king's human footstool. The exact circumstances of Valerian's death are unconfirmed by historians—some say he was tortured and killed—but it is certain he died in captivity in 260. But the Roman governor of Syria took back large swaths of land from Persia. After a defeat around 262, Shapur attempted no more incursions into Roman territory.

Sassanian forces captured the Roman emperor Valerian in 260.

ROMAN EMPEROR VALERIAN (LEFT) AND THE SASSANIAN EMPEROR SHAPUR I, ON A THIRD-CENTURY CAMEO. NATIONAL LIBRARY OF FRANCE, PARIS

E. LESSING/ALBUM

ROME ON ITS KNEES
A relief at the Naqsh-e Rostam necropolis depicts Sassanian King Shapur forcing the Roman emperor Valerian (left) to surrender. The necropolis was originally established by the ancient Persian kings, and lies near Persepolis, founded in the fifth-century B.C. by Darius I.

DE AGOSTINI PICTURE LIBRARY/ALBUM

SACRED HEARTHS
Fire altars were an important part of the Zoroastrian faith, the state religion of the Sassanians. Remains of these altars can be found at the Persian royal necropolis of Naqsh-e Rostam (left).

PAUL A.SOUDER/GETTY IMAGES

Shapur also made territorial gains in the east. According to Sassanian sources, his forces seized lands in central Asia, including Bactria, Sogdiana, and Ghandara, which had belonged to the Kushan empire. To manage this sprawling empire, Shapur further centralized the system of government, creating a streamlined hierarchy in which power radiated from the king, who then delegated to a prime minister. Below them were four classes: the Zoroastrian priests (asronan); the warriors (arteshtaran); the commoners (wastaryoshan); and the artisans (hutukhshan).

The early gains of Shapur I plateaued in the fourth century. By the beginning of the fifth century, the front with the Roman Empire was largely stable. Sassanian forces extended their empire's eastern bounds as far as China, but elsewhere they were suffering losses and setbacks. The people of eastern Iran, known as the White Huns, plundered parts of eastern Persia in the fifth century.

A Diverse Empire

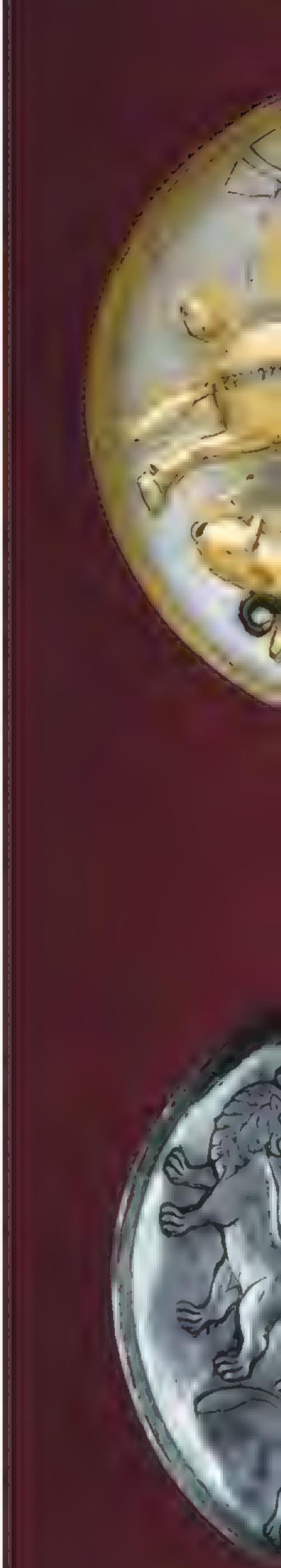
Sassanian kings ruled people of many cultures and ethnicities. The Silk Road passed directly through their lands, bringing not only wealth but also a huge number of visiting merchants from Central Asia, India, the Arabian peninsula, Egypt, the eastern Mediterranean, the Caucasus, Greece, and Rome. The outside influence of these people enriched the Sassanians financially and culturally, but complicated governing.

In the sixth century, Sassanian military and cultural power reached its peak under the rule of Khosrow I, who came to power in 531. He enacted a further wave of administrative reforms to ensure a quick military response to any external threat or internal rising. The country was divided into four regions, each placed under its own military commander.

Sassanian art embraced a wide diversity of cultural influences and visual motifs.

A FIFTH-CENTURY SASSANIAN SILVER BOTTLE WITH A FIGURE OF A DANCER, EXECUTED IN A MIX OF PERSIAN AND GREEK STYLES. LOUVRE MUSEUM, PARIS

RMN-GRAND PALAIS



1

2

KINGS OF THE HUNT

The Sassanian rulers gave exquisitely crafted silver plates and bowls to allied governors as reminders of their authority, expressed visually through their hunting prowess. 1 Fifth-century King Firuz (or Kavadh) hunts rams; 2 An unidentified fourth-century king grips the antlers of a stag as his sword pierces its neck; 3 A fifth-century Sassanian king, probably Firuz I, displaying the lions he has killed; 4 The sixth-century Bahram VI kills one lion while fending off another.

3

4

1. METROPOLITAN MUSEUM, NEW YORK. 2, 3, AND 4. BRITISH MUSEUM, LONDON
1. MMA/RMN-GRAND PALAIS. 2. BRITISH MUSEUM/RMN-GRAND PALAIS. 3. BRIDGEMAN/ACI. 4. BRITISH MUSEUM/SCALA, FLORENCE

ROYAL GROUND
Situated near Persepolis, the Naqsh-e Rostam necropolis contains the tombs of four rulers of the Persian Empire from the fifth century B.C.: Darius I, Xerxes I, Ataxerxes I, and Darius II. Centuries later, the Sassanian kings had reliefs sculpted in the lower part of the sepulchers to commemorate their own deeds and link them to the ancient rulers whom they considered their forefathers. In addition to Shapur I vanquishing the Roman emperor Valerian, victories carried out by later kings are also depicted, as well as a scene showing the investiture of Ardashir I, the founder of the dynasty, by the Zoroastrian divinity Ahura Mazda.

SURA ARK/GETTY IMAGES

THE LAST EMPEROR

A 17th-century painting (left) depicts Khosrow II, the last of the great Persian kings who invaded Byzantine lands in the early seventh century. Following his death, the Sassanian state weakened, and fell to the Arabs in 651.

KURWENAL/ALBUM

Although Zoroastrianism continued to be the state religion, many other faiths were practiced in Sassanian lands, including Buddhism and Judaism. The Babylonian Talmud, one of the principal texts of Rabbinic Judaism, was composed under Sassanian rule.

At first, religious diversity had been permitted, but government repression would take hold. The third-century religious leader Mani, whose Manichean theology contains both Christian and Zoroastrian influences, was tolerated, but around 274 the Zoroastrian priesthood successfully agitated for his execution.

After Christianity became the official faith of the Roman Empire in 380, Sassanian leaders associated it with the enemy. Persecutions of Christians became more common. Even so, it was convenient to tolerate some forms of Christianity: Nestorian Christians, who had broken with the Church in the fifth century, found sanctuary in the Sassanian lands.

A Last Flourish

Astonishing Sassanian metalwork, and the grandeur of the dynasty's stone reliefs at Naqsh-e Rostam and Taq-e Bostan have survived to proclaim the achievements of the last Persian kings.

Scholarship also flourished in the later Sassanian period: In the sixth century, Khosrow I founded the Academy at Gondishapur, where he gave refuge to Nestorian Christians fleeing persecution. These refugees brought with them valuable Greek and Syrian works on medicine and philosophy that the king ordered translated.

At the turn of the seventh century, Khosrow II continued to fight against Byzantium. Persian troops occupied Jerusalem, Rhodes, and Alexandria, and even came within sight of the gates of Constantinople, but these successes came at great cost to the empire. The long years of warfare had taken their toll financially and weakened Khosrow II's grip on power.

A Byzantine military comeback, and the murder of Khosrow II in 628, led to a period of decline. To the south, Arab power was growing, and their leaders saw how weak the Sassanians had become. They first attacked Persian cities in 633 and went on to occupy Ctesiphon three years later. Arab forces toppled the last Sassanian king, Yazdegerd III, in 651. Islam became the dominant religion, but Persian refugees carried the Zoroastrian faith with them east to India.

The destroyers of the Sassanian Empire became its heirs. The Arab newcomers enthusiastically preserved and disseminated the huge repositories of learning at Gondishapur and other centers. The flame of scholarship, lit by the Sassanian kings, would later find its way to Europe, whose societies it would help transform.

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PROTECTED BY THE GODS
This relief at Taq-e Bostan in western Iran shows the seventh-century Sassanian King Khosrow II on his favorite horse, Shabdiz. The king is also depicted as the central figure in the upper part of the relief, flanked by the Zoroastrian deity Ahura Mazda (right) and Anahita, patron deity of the Sasssanian kings.

ERIC LAFFORGUE/ALAMY/ACI

FIT FOR A PERSIAN KING

Throughout history, male rulers across different cultures tried to find ways to distinguish themselves from their predecessors. Iconography was a key component of how Sassanian rulers set themselves apart. Crowns were often designed to express their individuality and featured various motifs, some to express their prowess as warriors or hunters, and others to reflect their holy status. The sun radiates from the crown of Bahram I (273-276), for instance, to link him to the deity Mithra. So distinctive were these crowns, that their appearance on coins has helped historians identify rulers. But some crown styles were imitated by later rulers: Khosrow II's adoption of a crescent moon together with a star was copied by his successors.

SASSANIAN CROWNS were so complex and had such a wealth of impressive decoration that the kings were unable to wear them on their heads. According to some sources, the crowns were so heavy that they were hung with gold chains above the throne, over the king's temporary place of residence, or even over his deathbed. The Sassanian custom of suspending crowns was adopted by Byzantine rulers and incorporated as part of the court ceremony.

1. Hormizd (Ohrmazd) I (272-273) stands erect holding a trident. 2. Bahram I (273-276) wears a radiant crown, associated with the god Mithra. 3. Bahram II (276-293) is shown in profile along with a queen who appears behind him. 4. Hormizd (Ohrmazd) II (302-309) includes a crown featuring an eagle with a pearl in its mouth. 5. Khosrow II (590-628) wears a crown adorned with wings, crescent moon, and star.

All coins shown here are held by the British Museum

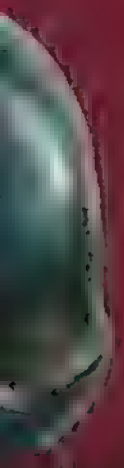
TOP LEFT. RMN-GRAND PALAIS. TOP RIGHT. BRIDGEMAN/ACI. COINS: 1. AKG/ALBUM. 2., 3., 4. AND 5. RMN-GRAND PALAIS.

MYSTERY KING

Held in the Louvre Museum, Paris, this bronze bust is believed to portray a Sassanian king who remains unidentified despite his distinctive winged crown.

MOON AND MERLONS

The half-moon appears as an emblem on the crown of this silver and gold statue, believed to be that of Shapur II (309-379). Below are merlons (battlement shapes), a motif associated with the god Ahura Mazda.



LIFE OF THE LIONESS

ELEANOR OF AQUITAINE

Ruler of Aquitaine, queen of two nations, mother of kings: From her teenage years to her death in her 80s, Eleanor was a savvy power player known for outwitting and outlasting political rivals in medieval France and England.

MARINA MONTESANO

BRAINS AND BEAUTY
Beauty and determination infuse Frederick Sandys's 1858 portrait of Eleanor of Aquitaine. Opposite: A pommel from a 12th-century dagger bears the image of a lion, a heraldic device from Eleanor's coat of arms.

ALBUM. OPPOSITE: RMN-GRAND PALAIS/EMILIE CAMBIER

PICTURE OF A BEAUTY QUEEN?

A 12th-century fresco found at the Chapelle Sainte-Radegonde, in Chinon, France depicts several figures on horseback. Some historians have identified the crowned figure (second from right) as Eleanor of Aquitaine.

BRIDGEMAN/AC

When reviewing the history of medieval Europe, no woman stands out as much as Eleanor of Aquitaine. Once the most eligible woman in Europe, she became queen of two nations, leader of a crusade, mother of kings, and patron of the arts. Her power and prestige earned her enemies in the 12th century, and her critics authored a black legend founded on gossip and rumor that has fueled ideas about her until the present time.

Eleanor (Aliénor) was born around 1124 in southwestern France to William X, Duke of Aquitaine, and Aénor, Viscountess of Châtellerault (Named for her mother, her name meant "the other Aénor"). The oldest of the couple's three children, she had a younger sister, Petronilla, and a younger brother, William Aigret. William X controlled many territories in west and central France including Aquitaine, Poitiers, Gascony, Limousin, and Auvergne. Their ducal court had a fine reputation as a patron of the arts. Eleanor's grandfather, William IX, was known as the "troubadour duke," famous for his poetry and songs about heroism and courtly love. Poets of the time, especially the famous Marcabru, found hospitality at the court of Aquitaine.

Culture and learning were a family tradition for Eleanor, who received the best possible education of the time. She was taught mathematics, astronomy, history, literature, Latin, and music. She also learned arts and crafts: embroidery, needlepoint, sewing, and spinning. Like any daughter of nobility, she danced and sang, as well as rode horses and went hunting. Like many noble daughters, Eleanor would

have been raised to be a nobleman's wife and was probably not expected to play any role in governing.

From Duchess to Queen

During the 12th century, monarchies were gaining power and expanding across Europe as alliances formed and linked them together. Powerful aristocracies that fell within their kingdoms still held great influence and needed to be respected. In France the Capetian dynasty ruled a slice of north-central France, the so-called Île-de-France, between the Seine and the Loire. The royal house of France, the Capets, when Eleanor was born, was led by King Louis VI (also known as Louis the Fat).

Much of what is now France was divided up into powerful dukedoms—Normandy, Brittany, and Aquitaine—and large counties—Flanders, Anjou, Lorraine, Champagne, Bourgogne, and Toulouse, some of which were larger and richer than the possessions of the Capetian dynasty. Of the dukedoms, the duchy of Aquitaine was one of the largest, wealthiest, and most influential.

To complicate matters, in 1066 William, Duke of Normandy (also known as William the Conqueror), became king of England. While William was technically a vassal of France on the French side of the English channel, when he was on the other side, he was king of England—the French king's equal in rank. Who controlled the lands of England and France would lead to many bloody conflicts over the coming centuries as different houses vied for control.

Eleanor played a vital role in these power

ELEANOR GAVE THIS VASE, MADE OF ROCK CRYSTAL AND GOLD, TO HER FIRST HUSBAND, LOUIS, WHEN THEY MARRIED. LOUVRE MUSEUM, PARIS. ALBUM

TEENAGE WEDDING
The marriage of young Eleanor of Aquitaine and the future King Louis VII in 1137 is depicted (above) in the *Chroniques de Saint-Denis* (12th-13th century). Musée Condé, Chantilly, France

BR DGEMAN/AC

struggles. Her destiny took a radical turn when her younger brother died in 1130, leaving her the new heiress to her father's dominions. When her father died unexpectedly in April 1137, while on a pilgrimage to Santiago de Compostela in Spain, Eleanor was thrust into the world of medieval politics in her early teens.

Shortly before his death, Eleanor's father had dictated his will and officially named Eleanor as his heir. He appointed King Louis VI as her guardian, and the Capetian king shrewdly saw a way to bring the lands of Aquitaine under his control. He quickly announced the betrothal of Duchess Eleanor to his 17-year-old son, the future Louis VII.

Queen of France

The wedding was celebrated in Bordeaux on July 25, 1137. Seven days later, Louis the Fat was dead, leaving the teenagers Louis and Eleanor to rule as king and queen. The two were coronated at Bourges Cathedral later that year on Christmas Day. Despite the marriage, the lands of Eleanor's family would not come under the control of the Capetian dynasty. According to the terms of her father's will, Queen Eleanor first had to give birth to a son, who then had to reach the age of majority and become the new duke of Aquitaine before the lands would officially pass to Louis's family.

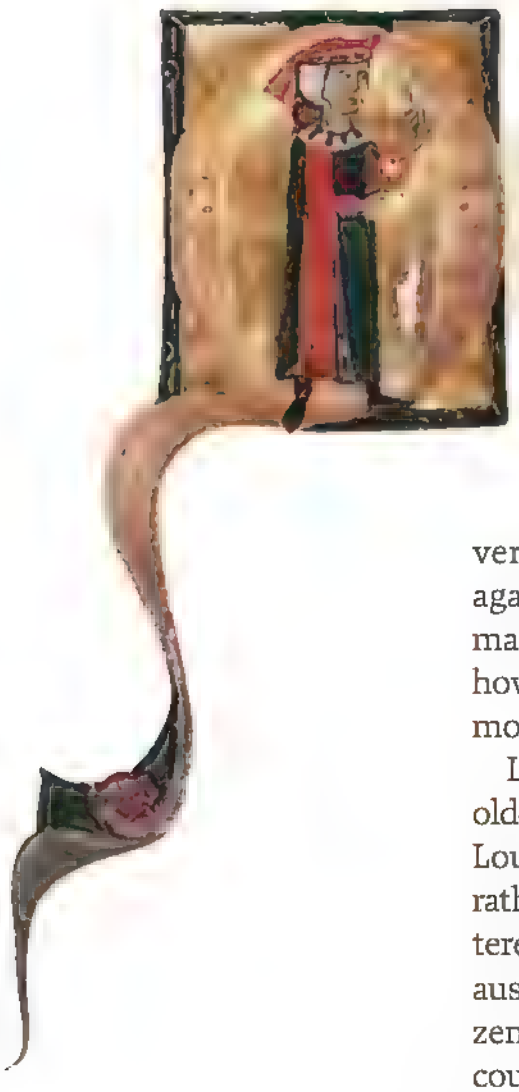
By many accounts, Eleanor was a bright and vivacious woman. Life at the Capetian court did not entirely meet the expectations and tastes of the young bride who was used to the court of Aquitaine's embrace of troubadour poetry, sophistication, extravagance, and a greater freedom of manners. The Parisian court and northern France were more reserved. The poet Marcabru, who had followed Eleanor to court, was sent away on account of his passionate

England's Royal Legends and Lore

THE ANGLO-FRENCH DYNASTY of the Normans and Plantagenets attempted to ground its power in a common mythology: the Arthurian legends. Between 1135 and 1137, William of Malmesbury published them as the *De antiquitate Glastoniensis ecclesiae (On the Antiquity of Glastonbury)*. Another volume, *Historia regum Britanniae (History of the Kings of Britain)*, written by Geoffrey of Monmouth in 1136 also chronicled the Arthurian legends and inspired the 1155 *Roman de Brut* by Wace. This work, dedicated to Eleanor of Aquitaine, describes the Round Table. A place of worship was built for Arthur: Glastonbury Abbey in Somerset, where in 1191 the "graves" of Arthur and Guinevere were discovered and which was identified with the legendary land of Avalon.

THE RUINS OF GLASTONBURY
Founded in 712, the Glastonbury Abbey (above) is identified with the mythical Avalon where, according to legend, King Arthur and Guinevere were buried.
C. NICHOLSON/AGE FOTOSTOCK

THE FRENCH KNIGHT
A French miniature from 1344 (left) shows an episode from a poem by Chrétien de Troyes about Lancelot the Knight. Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris
BRIDGEMAN/ACI



In Paris, Eleanor missed the sophistication and extravagance of the Aquitaine court, and its embrace of troubadour poetry.

A TROUBADOUR DEPICTED IN AN INITIAL CAPITAL FROM A 12TH-CENTURY FRENCH VOLUME OF TROUBADOUR POETRY
A.BJM

verses. Bold and vibrant, Eleanor strained against the confines of life at court and her marriage. One historian of the time remarked how Eleanor complained that she married "a monk, not a king."

Louis had become king by chance when his older brother Philip died in 1131. Sources say that Louis was being raised for a life in the church rather than the throne. His upbringing was sheltered and quiet compared to Eleanor's. He was austere and frugal, a marked contrast to the brazen queen. The two newlyweds' personalities could not have been more different.

The marriage was not a fruitful one. The couple did not have many children. Eleanor only gave birth to two daughters: Marie, countess of Champagne, in 1145, and Alice (or Alix), countess of Blois, around 1150. By most accounts, the marriage's failure to produce a male heir led to greater tensions between husband and wife.

Yet it was not just the differences in culture and character that led to disputes; youth also led to unwise choices. In 1142 Petronilla, Eleanor's sister, fell in love with the married count of Vermandois, who was married to Eleanor of Champagne, daughter of a powerful French family. The count set aside his wife and married Petronilla. Critics saw Eleanor's hand in the affair, which may have been a love match, but could have served a strategic purpose of strengthening the bonds between the Capetian crown and the House of Aquitaine.

Petronilla's marriage led to a war between Louis and the count of Champagne in 1142. In 1143 Louis ordered the burning of the small town of Vitry-en-Perthois, killing as many as 1,500 people. The church condemned the actions of the French crown, which caused the pious Louis deep shame. He vowed to mount a crusade to atone for it.

Failed Crusade

The Crusades were a series of European military expeditions to the Holy Land. Starting in 1095, the First Crusade aimed to recapture sites under the control of Islamic rulers. It culminated when European forces took the city of Jerusalem in summer 1099. After declaring the Crusade a success, many European commanders and forces departed for home, which left the conquered territories vulnerable to attack and reconquest.

During the early 12th century, Muslim forces began to regroup in Aleppo and Mosul. When they took the Armenian city of Edessa in 1144 (today Urfa), the papacy and European powers grew alarmed that Muslim emirates would unite and take back more territories in the region.

Pope Eugene III organized an expedition to safeguard the former conquests in the East and "rescue" Edessa. The designated leader was German king Conrad III. Louis VII decided to help lead the Crusade, and Queen Eleanor would join him. People from her lands made up the bulk of the French forces, and she accompanied them as their leader, the Duchess of Aquitaine.

The pair departed for the Holy Land in June 1147. Critics of Eleanor delighted in spreading rumors about her, detailing her excesses and blaming her for military failures. Many of these misconceptions have lingered until this day. One of the most popular is that she brought 300 ladies-in-waiting with her, whose caravan stretched for miles and allegedly slowed the mission's progress.

After passing Constantinople, the mission encountered hostilities in Asia Minor. The first battles were a disaster for the French. In early 1148 the royal couple arrived in Antioch and were welcomed by Raymond of Poitiers, Eleanor's paternal uncle. The atmosphere was tense: Raymond wanted to attack Aleppo and move to liberate Edessa from there, but Louis insisted on going to Jerusalem first.

Eleanor openly sided with her uncle and threatened to annul the marriage to Louis if he did not heed Raymond's counsel. Their marriage had shown signs of strain before,

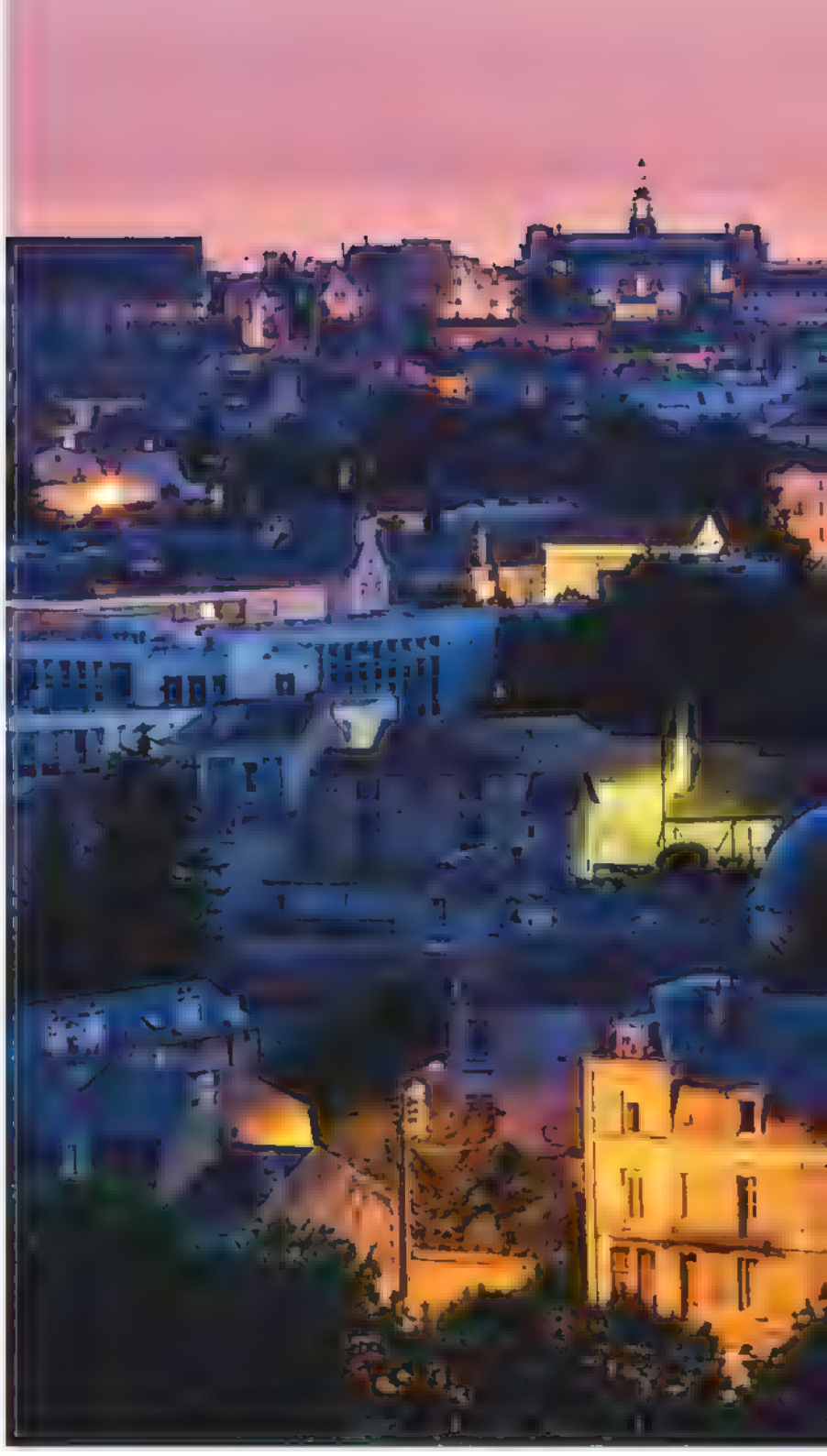
THE SECOND CRUSADE

St. Bernard of Clairvaux preaches the Second Crusade before Louis VII in Vézelay, in 1146. From *Les Passages d'Outremer* by Sébastien Mamerot, miniature by Jean Colombe. Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris

Like Mother, Like Daughter

AFTER HER PARENTS' ANNULMENT, Eleanor's firstborn daughter, Marie, stayed at the court of her father, Louis VII. In 1164, at age 19, she married Henry, the Count of Champagne. The pair had four children over the course of their marriage. Marie brought some of her mother's love of the arts with her to Champagne. Marie was patron of the writer and clergyman Andreas Capellanus and of the famous Chrétien de Troyes, who began writing his "novels" in verse around the mid-1170s. It would appear that Marie even suggested certain plots, or at least gave some direction, to the French poet. Scholars believe that Chrétien based them wholly or in part on the Celtic legends from Cornwall and Wales and tales from the lands of modern-day Brittany. Chrétien dedicated the story of Lancelot, which he wrote between 1176 and 1177, to Marie.

MARIE OF FRANCE WRITING IN A MINIATURE FROM A LATE 13TH-CENTURY ANTHOLOGY OF FRENCH POEMS. BIBLIOTHÈQUE DE L'ARSENAL, PARIS/ BRIDGEMAN IMAGES



but tensions over the Crusade pushed it to the breaking point. Malign rumors about the queen began to circulate: many chroniclers, possibly to cover the king's incompetent strategy, falsely accused Eleanor of incest with her uncle. In an uncharacteristic act of defiance against Eleanor, Louis forced her to go to Jerusalem.

A series of disastrous military decisions resulted in the failure of the Second Crusade. In 1149 Louis and Eleanor boarded ships to sail back to France in defeat. For Louis VII, the Crusade was a twofold disaster: He had been away from his kingdom for two years, involved in expensive military campaigns the results of which were humiliating, and his marriage had completely broken down.

After the couple returned to Europe, they met with Pope Eugene III who tried to reconcile them—even threatening excommunication. It was no use, the union was doomed: On March 21,

1152, a group of bishops at Beaugency declared Eleanor's marriage void for reasons of consanguinity. In line with tradition, the daughters remained with their father, and Eleanor retained her duchy in Aquitaine.

Duchess Eleanor was only 28, and it did not take long for suitors to begin to pursue her—for her lands and her mind. Theobald V of Blois, six years Eleanor's junior, tried to kidnap her (he would later marry her daughter, Alice). Eleanor had her eye on a different suitor. From her court at Poitiers, she sent for him in secret. His name was Henry Plantagenet, duke of Normandy and count of Anjou.

Shortly before her divorce, Eleanor had met young Henry and his father, Geoffrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou, when they came to Paris in August 1151 to negotiate a peace agreement with Louis. Wagging tongues speculated that the handsome Geoffrey had a liaison with Eleanor, but no hard evidence of a romantic relationship between the two exists.

Geoffrey had a strong tie to the English throne. In 1128 he had married Matilda, daughter of Henry I of England and widow of Holy Roman Emperor Henry V. They had a son, also named Henry. After the death of her father, Matilda battled with Stephen of Blois for control of England, while Geoffrey defended his holdings in France. As he grew, young Henry Plantagenet had his eyes on the English throne, establishing his reputation for military might as a teenager.

Less than three months after her divorce from Louis, Eleanor married Henry Plantagenet, nine years her junior, on May 18, 1152. Genealogy shows that the pair were more closely related than Eleanor and Louis, but that did not stand in the way of the union. Henry and Eleanor were masters of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and the Aquitaine, and serious rivals to Louis.

HOMELAND HEARTH

The Romanesque Church of Sainte-Radegonde rises in the foreground of this image of Poitiers, the birthplace of Eleanor of Aquitaine. Behind is the city's cathedral, where Eleanor wed the future Henry II of England in 1152.

AGE FOTOSTOCK

IN REPOSE
A likeness of Eleanor of Aquitaine lies above her tomb (above) in Fontevraud Abbey. At the time of her death in 1204, she had outlived all but two of her children.
ORONOZ/ALBUM

Lions' Den

In 1153 Henry crossed the English Channel and was able to secure his position on the throne from the sitting king of England. By the time he and Eleanor were coronated in December 1154, she had already given birth to their first son, William, in August 1153—and was pregnant with their second child. In one bold stroke, the lands of Normandy, Aquitaine, Anjou, and other important French territories came under the control of the English king and queen. Eleanor's children, as well as her lands, gave her much security.

In the early years of their marriage, Eleanor and Henry II were a strong team as they oversaw their French and English possessions. Between 1153 and 1166, they produced a literal dynasty of five sons and three daughters. Henry often traveled to different parts of his realm, and while he was away, Eleanor assumed the role of regent and other political duties.

In this marriage, Eleanor was also able to become a patron of the arts, and at least four writers dedicated their work to her. She famously established the so-called Court of Love at Poitiers between 1168 and 1173. Along with her daughter Marie (from her first marriage), popular accounts describe Eleanor's court as a flowering of culture where music, poetry, and chivalry took center stage.

Toward the late 1160s, relations between Eleanor and Henry were growing tense. Henry was a notorious philanderer, and many speculate that his infidelities damaged the marriage beyond repair. The royal children were not making things easy on their parents either. In 1173 three of Henry's sons, who many believe were spurred on by Eleanor, led the French territories and a number of Anglo-Norman barons in a rebellion against Henry II. Henry the Young King enlisted his brothers Richard and Geoffrey to rebel against their father. Richard, his mother's favorite son, was the designated heir of the Aquitaine and had grown quite powerful. By the end of that year, the king appeared to have gotten the upper hand in the struggle and Eleanor was captured and held at the fortress of Chinon, France. She would remain a prisoner until Henry II's death in 1189.

Final Years

The following years were very hard for the queen, who lived under house arrest in several different locations in England. Henry II was rumored to be seeking a divorce from Eleanor, perhaps to marry the most well known of his mistresses, Rosamund Clifford. Famous for her beauty, Rosamund died under mysterious circumstances in 1176. Black legends arose that Eleanor had managed to capture "Fair Rosamund" and forced her to kill herself, giving her a choice between a knife and poison. Eleanor was imprisoned during this time, so her murdering Rosamund seems unlikely.

During her confinement, Eleanor would be allowed to travel for holidays, most notably Christmas, and to see her sons. Her influence on them waned during this time, but her son Henry's thirst for power did not. He rebelled again against his father in 1183, but was struck by dysentery. Knowing he was going to die, he implored Henry II to show mercy to his mother. Eleanor would be granted more freedoms over time

BECOMING QUEEN
Eleanor was crowned queen of England in Westminster Abbey on December 19, 1154. Consecrated on December 28, 1065, the abbey was a coronation and burial site of English royalty.

JAMES BRITTAIN/AGE FOTOSTOCK

and would even travel with her husband, but she was not free to come and go as she pleased.

After Henry's death in July 1189, Richard the Lion-Hearted became king, and Eleanor gained her complete freedom. Her son restored her lands that had been seized after the 1173 rebellion. Richard appointed her to a government position, and Eleanor traveled the English countryside securing loyalty oaths to her son and his kingdom.

Even in her late 60s, Eleanor continued to follow and often direct the political events of her lands. In 1191 she arranged a marriage for Richard to Berengaria of Navarre. While Richard was crusading in the Holy Land, Eleanor wielded influence over the men ruling in Richard's absence, including his younger brother, Prince John. Moreover, accused of having ordered the murder of Conrad of Montferrat in the Holy Land, Richard was imprisoned by Holy Roman Emperor Henry VI. Eleanor turned to the pope, Celestine III, to help arrange her son's release and also secured funds for his ransom.

In her 70s, Eleanor sought to strengthen the bonds between the Plantagenets and the Capets. In 1200 she traveled to the Pyrenees to escort her granddaughter Blanche to marry the son of the French king in a continuing effort to maintain the power of her family.

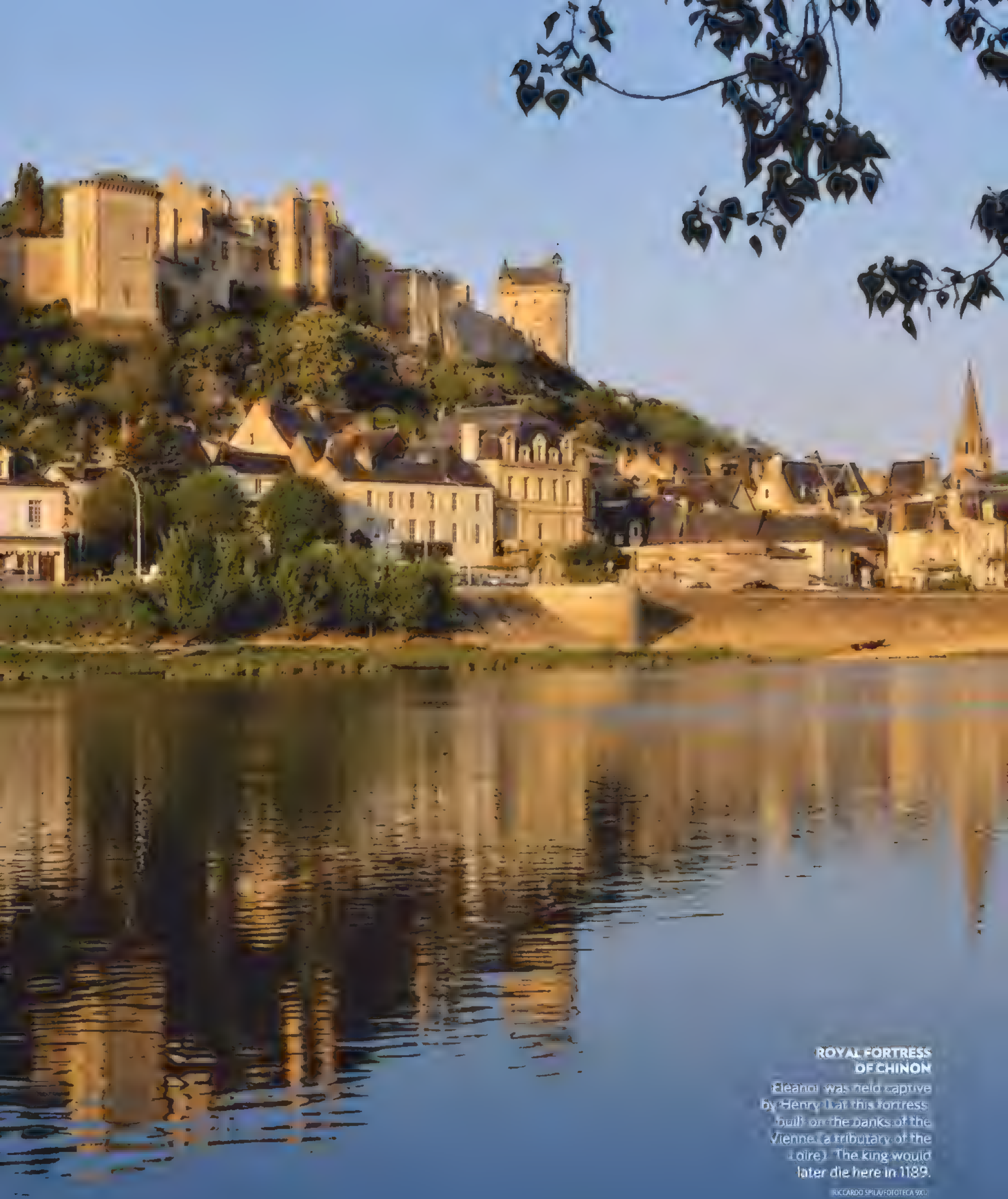
Eleanor outlived most of her children: her two daughters with King Louis VII; her sons William, Henry, Geoffrey, and Richard; and her daughters Matilda and Joan—all died before their mother. After Richard's death, Eleanor's youngest son John became king of England. Around age 80, Eleanor died in 1204 at Fontevraud Abbey in Anjou, France. The wars between France and England would last long past her death.

At times portrayed as a frivolous young woman or a manipulative schemer, Eleanor was a savvy player on the political stage—unafraid to exercise the power she held; her reputation may have been damaged by her boldness, but her influence on the political and cultural events of the 12th century remains undiminished.

MARINA MONTESANO IS PROFESSOR OF MEDIEVAL HISTORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MESSINA, ITALY

Learn more

Eleanor of Aquitaine: A Life
Alison Weir
Ballantine Books, 2001



ROYAL FORTRESS OF CHINON

Eleanor was held captive by Henry II at this fortress built on the banks of the Vienne (a tributary of the Loire). The king would later die here in 1189.

RICCARDO SPILA/FOTOTECA 9X12

QUEEN'S CLOISTER
Before her death in 1204, Eleanor of Aquitaine lived at the Abbey of Fontevraud in Anjou, France. Her tomb, and those of English kings Henry II and Richard I, can be found there.
NATHALIE CUVELIER/AGE FOTOSTOCK

SACRED VALLEY
Peru's Urubamba River flows through the steep Andean valleys where the Inca retreated in 1537. Near here, at a site whose location historians still contest, they founded Vilcabamba to continue the struggle against the Spanish.
GÜNTHER BAYERL/LOOKPHOTOS/GTRES

VILCABAMBA
LAST STRONGHOLD OF THE INCA
The Peruvian jungle holds the ancient city of Vilcabamba, the secret center of Inca resistance, which held out for 40 years against Spanish invaders.
MARÍA DEL CARMEN MARTÍN RUBIO

With 180 men and 30 horses, the conquistador Francisco Pizarro arrived in present-day northern Peru in 1531 to claim the land—and its riches—for himself and for Spain. The Inca Empire, rulers of the region, stood in his way. In November 1532 Pizarro captured the Inca king Atahualpa, ransomed him for a room full of gold, and killed him anyway in 1533.

Spanish forces swept through Cusco, the Inca capital. Pizarro installed a puppet ruler and took control of the empire.

Spanish cruelty fueled Inca resistance, and open rebellion broke out in 1536. Inca guerrillas launched attacks from their secret rebel base, the jungle city of Vilcabamba, to drive the Spanish from their home. It would take decades to quash their fighting spirit, and the last Inca stronghold would be swallowed by the jungle, an elusive prize for archaeologists centuries later.

Rise of the Inca

In the mid to late 13th century, the Inca people, an ethnic group who originated in the region of present-day Bolivia, founded a city they called Qosqo ("the navel" in Quechua) in a valley of what is now southeastern Peru. The name evolved into Cusco, and it was there that Manco Capac proclaimed himself first emperor of the Inca, established the first laws, and declared himself to be the sun god's representative on earth.

The Inca Empire grew quickly. By the 15th century, it exercised a similar role in South America to that of Rome in Europe. Inca territory eventually stretched from southwestern Colombia to the Biobío River in Chile, including the lands of Ecuador, Peru, Chile, and northwestern Argentina. Across these territories, the Inca imposed a rigorous social order maintained by the presence of a powerful and heavily disciplined army.

Battle Between Brothers

In 1527 the Inca Empire was caught in the midst of a power struggle. Huáscar and Atahualpa, two sons of the powerful monarch Huayna Capac, each wanted to claim their father's throne. Many people had already died in the course of the conflict, including city governors and influential members of the panacas or royal families.

After Huáscar was killed, Cusco passed into the hands of the winner Atahualpa. But he was a distant figure to the people, because although, according to the chronicler Juan de Betanzos, he was born in the city, he had spent

CONVENT OF SANTO DOMINGO
This structure in Cusco (left) was built on the Koricancha, an ancient Inca site dedicated to two gods: Viracocha, the creator deity, and to Inti, the sun god.

ARCTOS PHOTOS/A. AMY/ACI

THE LAST INCA REBELS

1532

ATAHUALPA the last monarch of the Inca Empire, is defeated by Francisco Pizarro. In 1534 the realm will be renamed New Castile, as the Spaniards establish their power.

1537

THE INCA fight back, but they are unable to defeat the Spaniards. They take refuge in the mountainous region of Vilcabamba and establish a holdout kingdom there.

1572

VICEROY TOLEDO sends an army in to Vilcabamba. Spanish troops capture Tupac Amarú, who is later executed in Cusco. The kingdom in Vilcabamba is abandoned.

1911

RENEWED interest in the site drives a series of expeditions to find Vilcabamba in the jungle. Explorers will find several sites that could be the remains of the elusive city.

THE INCA EMPIRE

THE INCA BEGAN EXPANDING their local realm into an empire around 1400. They first moved to the north and west, expanding up to present-day Ecuador and Colombia. Roughly 70 years later, the Inca defeated the Chimú Empire, who lived along the coast. At the dawn of the 16th century, the empire expanded south as lands stretching to the edge of Patagonia were captured. By 1532 the Inca made one last gain along the eastern slope of the Andes.

NGS MAPS

THE INCA LINE
An 18th-century, Peruvian oil painting (left) shows the succession of Inca emperors. Atahualpa, executed by the Spanish in 1533, appears at the lower right.

CHRISTIE'S IMAGES/SCALA, FLORENCE

most of his life in Quito, in the northern lands of the realm.

Pizarro had the good fortune to arrive in Peru during this conflict and used it to his advantage. The Inca were fascinated by the metal-clad Spaniards and their exotic-looking horses (local populations were used to seeing alpaca and llama). The preexisting political chaos coupled with this awe at the invaders' appearance allowed Pizarro to act quickly. He took Atahualpa prisoner on November 16, 1532, with little resistance.

FRANCISCO PIZARRO, CONQUEROR OF PERU, IN A 1673 ENGRAVING

AKG/A.BUM

Puppet Kings

Once the initial shock had passed, the Inca people's sense of anger and resistance toward the Spaniards began to build.

Francisco Pizarro, who was ruling the territory on behalf of Emperor Charles V of Spain, appointed a Cusco prince, Topa Huallpa, to be an intermediary between himself and the many cities that made up the Inca Empire. Pizarro believed that by appointing him, he would win the trust of the occupied people.

The plan failed, and the people rebelled against their new puppet monarch. A former general of Atahualpa poisoned Topa Huallpa. Deaths and looting created a sense of lawlessness and panic in New Castile, as the Spanish were now calling the land.

Pizarro tried to stabilize the situation by choosing another brother of Atahualpa, Manco Inca Yupanqui, as his new liaison. Although he fought at first for the Spaniards against Atahualpa's army in Quito, Manco Inca held on to the hope that he would one day be able to restore the kingdom of his ancestors.

The situation looked grim. The Spanish hold on power was strengthening as they founded new cities in the region and enslaved indigenous people. As the new urban and social structure became established, Manco Inca saw that getting

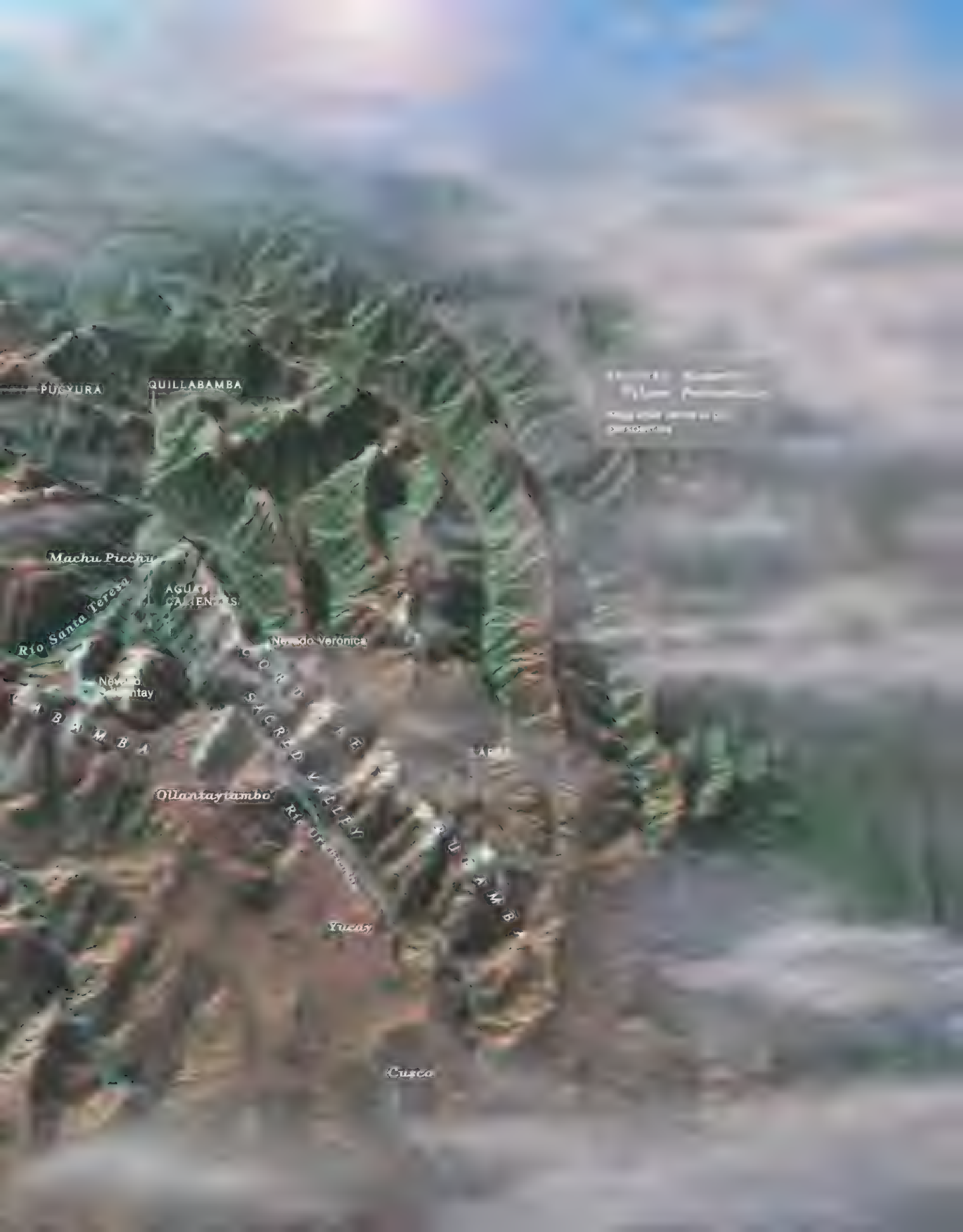
The Inca emerged as a power in the 14th century. Their supposed founder, Manco Capac, is represented in this 17th-century manuscript, the *General History of Peru*, by the friar Martín de Murúa. J. Paul Getty Museum, Los Angeles

PAUL GETTY MUSEUM/BRIDGEMAN/ACI

VILCABAMBA

CITIES IN THE CLOUDS

The rugged terrain of the Andes was home to many cities of the Inca Empire and the Spanish conquistadores. Prior to the Spaniards' arrival in 1532, the Inca realm stretched some 2,500 miles along the coast of South America and counted as many as 12 million people at its height. The high altitude, rugged terrain, and dense jungle preserved stunning Inca sites, protecting them from time and looters.


PUCYURA
QUILLABAMBA
Machu Picchu
AGUAS CALIENTES
Rio Santa Teresa
Nevado Veronica
SACRED VALLEY
Ollantaytambo
Yucay
Cusco

rid of the Spaniards would be extremely difficult. Manco Inca held power in name only: He was utterly dependent on Francisco Pizarro.

Rise of the Resistance

In 1536, after having been mistreated and imprisoned by Pizarro's forces, Manco Inca escaped from Cusco on the pretext of going to recover a sacred golden statue. Neither he or the statue returned. Manco Inca and his followers lost no time in attacking and killing Spaniards living in nearby towns before they summoned reportedly 200,000 indigenous people to encircle Cusco. The siege lasted 13 to 14 months during which time the Inca troops came close to winning before the conquistadores prevailed.

SILVER PIPER, INCA FIGURINE, PERU, 13TH-16TH CENTURIES
GRANGER/ALBUM

Despite the failure of the siege, Manco Inca did not give up. He gathered his supporters and announced that he had decided to wage a new war, this time from a stronghold in the Vilcabamba jungle. Vilcabamba was an area of imposing mountain terrain just over 100 miles from Cusco. Cities had been established there since the reign of the 10th monarch, Tupac Yupanqui.

Manco Inca left for Vilcabamba accompanied by thousands of indigenous people. He settled in the city of Vitcos, destroyed surrounding houses and mounted a guerrilla campaign against people traveling the mountain roads. The Spaniards were determined to quell the hotbed of rebellion and in 1539, Gonzalo Pizarro, Francisco's brother, attacked Vitcos and killed many of Manco Inca's men. Although Manco Inca managed to escape, his young son Titu Cusi was taken prisoner.

Manco Inca and his rebel army then headed toward Quito. But when they arrived in Huamanga (modern-day Ayacucho), the locals warned that there were Spaniards everywhere.

CHOQUEQUIRAO

In the 19th century, geographer Antonio Raimondi explored this Andean enclave and suggested that it was Vilcabamba, an identification that has since been rejected.

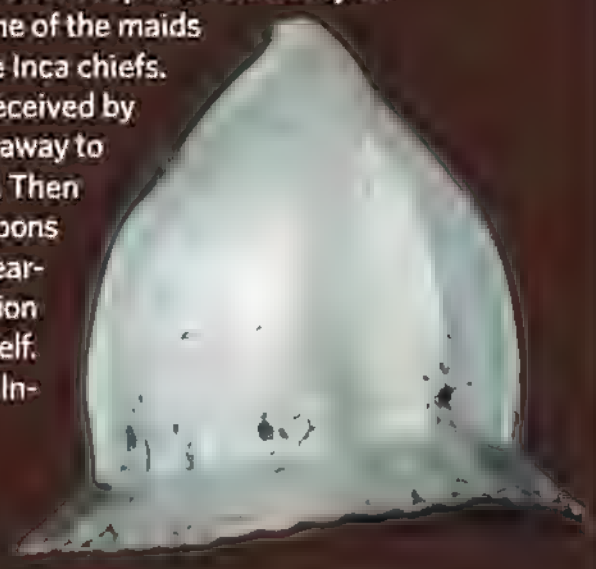
ALEX ROBINSON/AWL IMAGES

MACHU PICCHU
In 1909 American explorer Hiram Bingham arrived in Peru looking for the lost city of Vilcabamba. In 1911, during another expedition, he reached Machu Picchu instead.

SUSANNE KREMER/FOTOTECA 9X12

THE ASSASSINATION OF MANCO INCA

MANCO INCA, leader of the rebel state of Vilcabamba, offered asylum to seven Spaniards aligned with the faction who killed Francisco Pizarro in 1541 and were fleeing to avoid revenge from Pizarro's followers. Manco welcomed them, giving them food and entertainment. One day, a mestizo (person of mixed Inca and Spanish race) arrived from Cusco with a message for Manco's guests: an offer of Spanish clemency on condition that they murder Manco. One of the maids heard of the plot and went to warn the Inca chiefs. But the chiefs ignored her and were deceived by the mestizo into sending their soldiers away to attack Cusco, believing it undefended. Then the Spaniards stabbed Manco with weapons concealed in their boots. Manco's 10-year-old son witnessed his father's assassination and narrowly escaped being killed himself. The assassins were seized and killed by Inca troops loyal to Manco.



STEELY STRENGTH The superiority of the Spaniards' armor and helmets (left) against the clubs and slingshots of the Inca people was a deciding factor in the conquest of Peru.
ALBUM

Manco Inca returned to Vilcabamba and began to establish cities throughout the mountains there, including the city of Vilcabamba itself, which he made the capital of his kingdom.

Manco Inca ruled from his mountain base until 1544, when he was killed by a mestizo (person of mixed Inca and Spanish race) and several Spaniards to whom he had given asylum. He left behind three children: Sayri Tupac and Tupac Amarú who were legitimate; and Titu Cusi Yupanqui who was not.

INCA GOLD SHEET EMBOSSED WITH ANIMAL MOTIFS. MUSEUM OF AMERICA, MADRID
ORONOZ/ALBUM

Sayri Tupac succeeded his father and although his reign began with continued resistance, Viceroy Andrés Hurtado de Mendoza managed to get him to leave the jungle and move to the Sacred Valley of the Inca. There was briefly peace in Vilcabamba, but that peace was shattered when Sayri Tupac's half brother Titu Cusi proclaimed himself the new sovereign. The Spanish authorities entered into new negotiations and in 1568 sent in missionary friars to preach the gospel.

Fall of Vilcabamba

Many of the inhabitants of Vilcabamba were baptized, among them Titu Cusi, who in 1570 wrote an Instruction to Philip II in which he justified the uprising and asked to be granted rights as a descendant of the Inca. But then, suddenly, he fell sick and was dead within a day. Some chroniclers say that he died of pneumonia, others, that he was poisoned by his captains, who were afraid to leave the jungle and fall into the hands of the Spaniards.

Tupac Amarú, the rightful heir, succeeded to the throne. Titu Cusi, his half brother, had been keeping him locked up. At that time, Francisco de Toledo was the viceroy

DEADLY SQUARE
Atahualpa and Tupac Amaru were both executed in the Plaza de Armas in Cusco. Atahualpa was strangled in 1533 and Tupac Amaru beheaded

THE SEARCH FOR VILCABAMBA

IN THE MID-19TH CENTURY, interest was kindled in finding the lost rebel capital of the Inca, and several sites have been candidates for the lost city over the years. The French Count of Sartiges and the Italian-born geographer Antonio Raimondi visited Choquequirao, and Raimondi put forward the hypothesis that this was the site of Vilcabamba. In 1911 the American explorer Hiram Bingham explored the same area. Bingham visited a site called Espíritu Pampa. He didn't initially believe its ruins belonged to the lost city of Vilcabamba. After he came upon the site of Machu Picchu close by, he was convinced that this had been the rebel capital. In 1943 Luis Ángel Aragón, himself from Cusco, made a new exploration of the ruins at Espíritu Pampa. Since then, Espíritu Pampa has gained support as the site of Vilcabamba from other explorers, including Antonio Santander Caselli, Gustavo Alencastre, and Gene Savoy in the 1960s, and John Hemming in the 1970s. Vincent R. Lee's topographic maps and exploration further supported claims that Espíritu Pampa is Vilcabamba. Most recently, archaeologists Brian S. Bauer, Javier Fonseca Santa Cruz, and Miriam Aráoz Silva published their findings following a three-year excavation, and affirmed their belief that Espíritu Pampa is the site of the last Inca stronghold.

NGS/AUR MAGES

BINGHAM MADE FIVE EXPEDITIONS TO PERU BETWEEN 1909 AND 1915. HIS FINDS INCLUDED AN ORNATE PETROGLYPH (ABOVE) IN THE COLCA CANYON.

BINGHAM STANDS AMONG THE STRUCTURES OF MACHU PICCHU IN 1911.

HIRAM BINGHAM III (1875-1956)

In the course of his search for Old Vilcabamba, Bingham arrived at Machu Picchu in July 24, 1911. Surprised by the grandeur of the site, he later said: "Would anyone believe what I had found? Fortunately, in this land where accuracy of reporting what one has seen is not a prevailing characteristic of travelers, I had a good camera and the sun was shining."

GENE SAVOY (1927-2007)

The American amateur explorer and archaeologist Douglas Eugene (Gene) Savoy discovered more than 40 Inca and pre-Inca sites in Peru, where he carried out his first expedition in 1957. Savoy visited Espíritu Pampa and was convinced that the remains of the city belonged to Old Vilcabamba. Critics pointed out that the road to Vilcabamba followed the course of the Pampaconas River, which flows to the west. Espíritu Pampa, on the other hand is next to another river, the Concebidayoc, which runs to the northwest. In addition, while Espíritu Pampa is easily accessible, the chronicles record that Vilcabamba was extremely hard to reach.

SAVOY (RIGHT) POSES WITH HIS CAMERAS IN THE RUINS OF GRAN PALATÉN, ONE OF THE PRE-INCA SITES IN PERU

BETTMANN/GETTY IMAGES

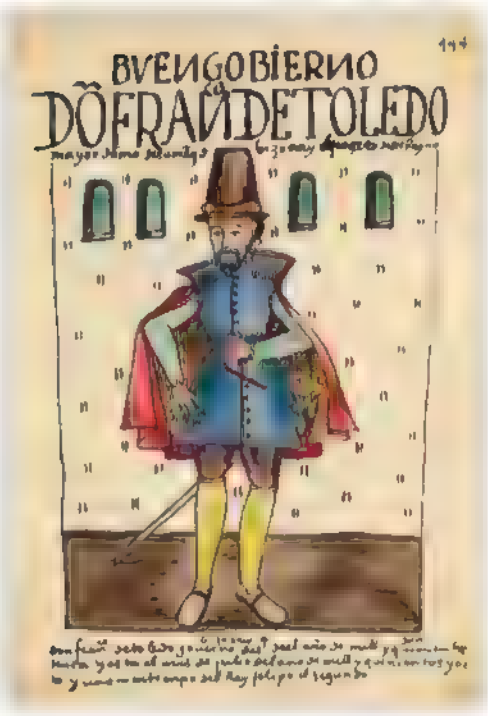
DEATH OF A REVOLUTIONARY

ON SEPTEMBER 21, 1572, Tupac Amarú entered Cusco wearing the mascaipacha, a tassel that represented royal power, but shackled in chains as a prisoner of the Spanish. Behind the Inca were his family and soldiers. Some Spanish sources report that the condemned leader had converted to Christianity prior to this day to avoid being burned alive, but his death was no less gruesome. When it was his turn, sources say he placed his head on the block and was beheaded by the Spanish. Next, his commanders were executed. Tupac Amarú's head was put on show in the Plaza de Armas to be publicly derided, but instead of derision the Inca people prostrated themselves before their leader's severed head. Viceroy Toledo finally had the head deposited in the crypt of the church of Santo Domingo, where the last king of the Inca was buried.

IN CHAINS
An 18th-century painting (left) shows Tupac Amarú imprisoned and secured with a chain. He had been captured by Martín García de Oñaz y Loyola, 50 leagues from Vilcabamba.
ALBUM

of Peru and had been commissioned by Philip II to put down the insurrection in Vilcabamba. The viceroy sent a message to the new king in an attempt to start negotiations, but Inca warriors killed the Spanish messenger before he could deliver the communication.

When Toledo learned of the attack, he put together an army of 250 men. In May 1572 Toledo sent his forces into the jungle stronghold. On June 24 one of Toledo's captains, Martín García de Oñaz y Loyola, seized the capital Vilcabamba. Before he was captured, Tupac Amarú ordered his people to burn down the city. The Inca leader was taken to Cusco where, after being tried, he was beheaded in the Plaza de Armas.



ORONOZ/ALBUM

FRANCISCO DE TOLEDO, DEPICTED IN *THE FIRST NEW CHRONICLE AND GOOD GOVERNMENT* BY F GUAMAN POMA DE AYALA

Having taken the city, Viceroy Toledo ordered a new governorate and a new capital to be founded in Vilcabamba under the name San Francisco de la Victoria. The inhabitants were unwilling to stay, especially as it was far from the mining areas. The capital shifted to a new location, where it still stands today under the name New Vilcabamba.

From the time of Peruvian independence from Spain in 1821, Old Vilcabamba was integrated into the province of La Convención. By then, the kingdom of the rebel Inca had fallen into memory. With the passage of time, the jungle swallowed up the roads and cities that had been built in the heart of the Andes, covering up their ruins and hiding them from view.

Archaeologists have been searching intensively for the remains of Vilcabamba for more than a century. Advances in archaeology and technology have helped focus the search for the Inca stronghold, but the search for conclusive proof is ongoing. Different scholars have focused on several sites, including Espíritu Pampa, as the location of the city's ruins as the search continues.

MARÍA DEL CARMEN MARTÍN RUBIO HAS CARRIED OUT EXTENSIVE RESEARCH ON VILCABAMBA AND IS THE AUTHOR OF A BIOGRAPHY OF FRANCISCO PIZARRO.

amaro.

BLOODY END
Tupac Amarú's head was reportedly cut off with a single stroke. Miniature from the Codex Murúa. 17th century. Quai Branly Museum, Paris

MUSÉE DU QUA. BRANLY/JACQUES CHIRAC/ RMN-GRAND PALAIS

LAND OF ICE AND SNOW
The Svalbard archipelago is one of the few areas of land located beyond 80° north latitude. More than 600 miles of ice-covered ocean fall between it and the North Pole.

PHOTO: FOTOTECA 9X12

QUEST FOR THE NORTH

From the 1840s, numerous expeditions set out to reach 90° north. Although none succeeded until the 20th century, each attempt pushed ever farther into the mysterious Arctic lands.

JAVIER CACHO

POLE

Struggling for Pole Position

From the 1840s, teams from Europe and North America edged farther into the Arctic, often enduring unspeakable hardship. The advent of powered flight brought the conquest of the pole within reach.

A CHRONOGRAPH FOUND DURING THE SEARCH FOR FRANKLIN'S ILL-FATED EXPEDITION

NATIONAL MARITIME MUSEUM, LONDON/ALBUM

1840s
An 1845 British expedition led by John Franklin disappears. Efforts to find him and his team will awaken interest in exploring the Arctic region and navigating routes northward to 90° north.

1850s
British naval captain E. Inglefield reports sighting open waters north of Smith Sound in 1852. The U.S. Grinnell expeditions (1850-55) continue the search for Franklin but only find remnants of his wintering camp.

1860s
U.S. explorer Isaac Hayes claims to have seen the Arctic Sea. German crews test theories that warmer waters from the Gulf Stream could

1870s
An Austro-Hungarian expedition discovers an unknown archipelago and names it Franz Josef Land. British teams under George Nares reach 83° 20' N, a new record for Western explorers.

1880s
American George De Long fails to reach the pole via the Bering Strait when his ship, the *Jeannette*, is trapped in ice. Three years later, the wreck of the *Jeannette* is found far away near the coast of Greenland.

1893
Theorizing that currents bore the *Jeannette* east, Norwegian explorer F. Nansen sets out in the *Fram*, hoping the drifting ice will carry it to the North Pole. The craft travels with the ice

1899
An Italian team led by Prince Luigi Amedeo and Umberto Cagni sets out for the Arctic Ocean via Archangel. Amedeo is incapacitated by frostbite, but Cagni reaches 86° north.

1900s
American Frederick Cook claims to have reached the pole in 1908; American Robert Peary claims the feat a year later. At first, Peary's claim prevails over Cook's, but it is later cast into doubt.

1948
Following several flights over the pole in aircraft, a Soviet team, led by Aleksandr Kuznetsov, is airlifted to the pole on April 23. His team are the first confirmed people to set foot on the North Pole.

1968
American Ralph Plaisted succeeds in the first confirmed surface conquest of the North Pole. Forty-four days after leaving Canada, his team successfully snowmobiled to the top of the world on April 19.

The phrase "on top of the world" carries ebullience and enthusiasm, as if nothing could be better than standing at 90° north latitude. In reality, Earth's remote North Pole is frigid and barren, an inhospitable region of ice and snow. Finding this last "undiscovered" place became an obsession for European and American explorers in the 19th and 20th centuries.

AN OPEN POLAR SEA?
Flemish cartographer Gerardus Mercator believed that the North Pole region was a sea surrounded by a belt of ice containing access channels as illustrated in a 1595 map (above). His theory was still popular in the 19th century.
PRISMA/ALBUM

Few people lived near the North Pole. A small Inuit community had settled the closest, but for the most part the region remained isolated from the rest of the world for centuries. A few intrepid explorers—John Cabot, Martin Frobisher, Henry Hudson, and James Cook—tried to navigate the region in search of the Northwest Passage, a sea route believed to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans in the waters above North America. The North Pole was not a concern for these early explorers, but their work laid the foundation for a polar obsession to come.

After the Napoleonic Wars ended in 1815, Great Britain, the foremost colonial power of the time, mounted a series of Arctic expeditions to reach the Bering Strait by crossing the Arctic, which was at the time believed to be an open sea surrounded by a belt of ice. Sir John Ross and Sir William Edward Parry led several expeditions in the 1820s and 30s, but none located the passage itself. In 1831 a scientific milestone was achieved by James Clark Ross, nephew of John and an officer on his uncle's Arctic voyage of 1829–1832. While on a sledge excursion, the young Ross became the first European to locate the planet's north magnetic pole.

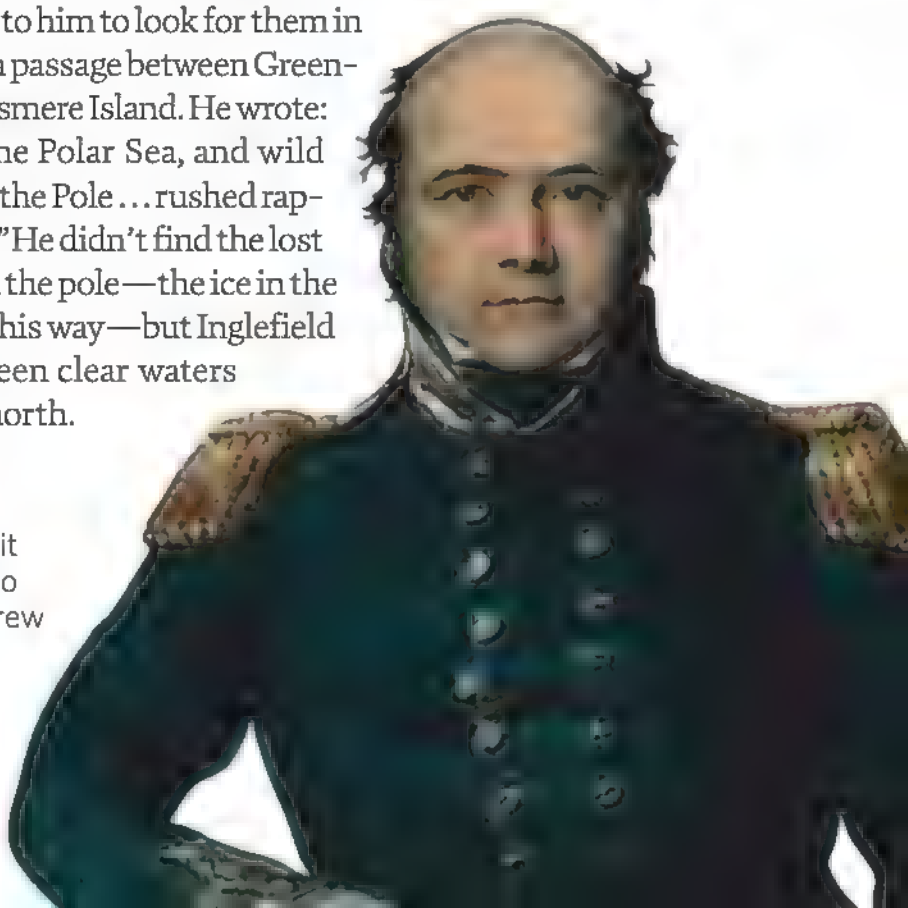
These early voyages revealed how dangerous exploration of northern waters could be but whetted explorers' appetite for discovery. Complications often arose from frigid waters trapping ships in newly forming ice. If a crew could not free their vessel, they often had to wait for months—either for a rescue or for the ice to thaw enough for them to sail away.

In Search of Franklin

In May 1845 another British expedition launched to find the Northwest Passage. Led by celebrated British explorer and naval officer Sir John Franklin, a crew of 133 sailed the H.M.S. *Erebus* and H.M.S. *Terror* into Arctic waters and disappeared without a trace. Over the next decade more than a hundred European ships went looking for Franklin and his men, searching the labyrinth of islands and inlets that make up the Canadian Arctic.

These rescue missions weren't successful in finding Franklin (his two ships would not be found until 2014 and 2016), but they did have unexpected results. While the captain of a naval ship is under strict orders to follow the route stipulated by the shipowner, in the case of a manhunt, the rules are different. As the objective was to locate the ships and whomever remained alive, the captains enjoyed the freedom to set their own course.

In 1852 Captain Edward Inglefield was in charge of one of the ships involved in the search for the missing explorers, and midway through the voyage it occurred to him to look for them in the Smith Sound, a sea passage between Greenland and Canada's Ellesmere Island. He wrote: "We were entering the Polar Sea, and wild thoughts of getting to the Pole . . . rushed rapidly through my brain." He didn't find the lost ships, nor did he reach the pole—the ice in the Smith Sound blocked his way—but Inglefield did say that he had seen clear waters just a short distance north.



LOST PIONEER
William Derby's portrait of Sir John Franklin, who disappeared with his crew while exploring Arctic waters in 1847.
AKG/ALBUM

Go North

IN THE 1870S AND 1880S, Nares and Greely pushed closer to the pole. De Long's ship the *Jeannette* was ① trapped by ice and ② sank after months adrift. The wreckage eventually drifted near ③ southwest Greenland. Nansen navigated the drifting ice and made it even closer to the pole. Cagni then beat Nansen's record. Peary made a contentious claim to have reached the pole in 1909, but the first confirmed surface conquest of the pole was undertaken by Plaisted in 1968.

EOSGIS.COM/NG MAPS

ALASKA (U.S.)
CANADA
RUSSIA
Chukchi Sea
Herbert 1968-69
De Long (Jeannette) 1879-81
NEW SIBERIAN ISLANDS
80°N
MELVILLE ISLAND
Laptev Sea
Nansen (Fram) 1893-96
DEVON ISLAND
SVERDRUP ISLANDS
ELLESMERE ISLAND
Smith Sound
Nares Strait
Geographic North Pole
Nansen
Cagni
Peary 1909
Anchorage of the *Alert*
Nares
Hall
Greely
Anchorage of the *Polaris*
Cagni 1900
FRANZ JOSEF LAND
GREENLAND (DENMARK)
SVALBARD
NOVAYA ZEMLYA
Qaqortoq
ICELAND
NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORWAY
SWEDEN
GREAT BRITAIN

Open sea route
Drifting on currents
On foot, by boat or sledge
Record

0 mi 400
0 km 400

New Voyagers

The search for Franklin's ships and the North Pole also caught the imaginations of several American explorers. In the 1850s American financier Henry Grinnell backed two expeditions to locate Franklin's ships and any potential survivors. Each expedition faced a relentless battle against cold, exhaustion, and ultimately, ice. One of their ships made it some 1,250 miles, but the crew had to abandon the mission and were rescued by a whaling ship. The Grinnell expeditions had small successes: One of Franklin's wintering camps was identified on Beechey Island, but searchers found nothing else that revealed Franklin's fate. They charted nearly 1,000 miles of unexplored coastline.

After the Grinnell expeditions in the 1850s, Americans had continued their polar exploration. In 1860, aboard the ship *United States,* Isaac Israel Hayes, a physician and explorer who had served on the second Grinnell mission, set out to reach the North Pole via Baffin Bay and Smith Sound. Hayes claimed to have traveled far north enough to have seen the open polar sea, but later analysis revealed that his calculations were off. His book *The Open Polar Sea,* published in 1867, captured American imaginations and provided details about the harsh conditions faced in the Arctic and the resourcefulness of the Inuit whom he encountered there.

Around this time, German explorers also began seeking the North Pole after prominent geographer August Petermann called for them to get involved in the quest. Between 1868 and 1870, two German expeditions set out and plotted their routes based on the theories of Petermann. He argued that the Gulf Stream, an ocean current that carries warm water from the Gulf of Mexico to the North Atlantic, extended into the heart of the Arctic. He believed the presence of warmer waters in the northern regions could create a navigable breach in the ice. The team soon learned that the current was not warm enough to create such a breach. Their missions were unsuccessful.

Starting in 1872, an Austro-Hungarian expedition set out, also using the work of Petermann to guide their path. The team was led by Julius von Payer and Carl Weyprecht, both explorers and officers in the Austro-Hungarian armed forces. Their ship, the *Tegetthoff,* became stranded, frozen in the ice for 27 months. Unable to sail, the boat drifted among the frozen seas.

The explorers came across an archipelago that they named Franz Josef Land for their emperor. The team was forced to abandon ship and set out on foot, pulling sledges and lifeboats along with them over the snow and ice.

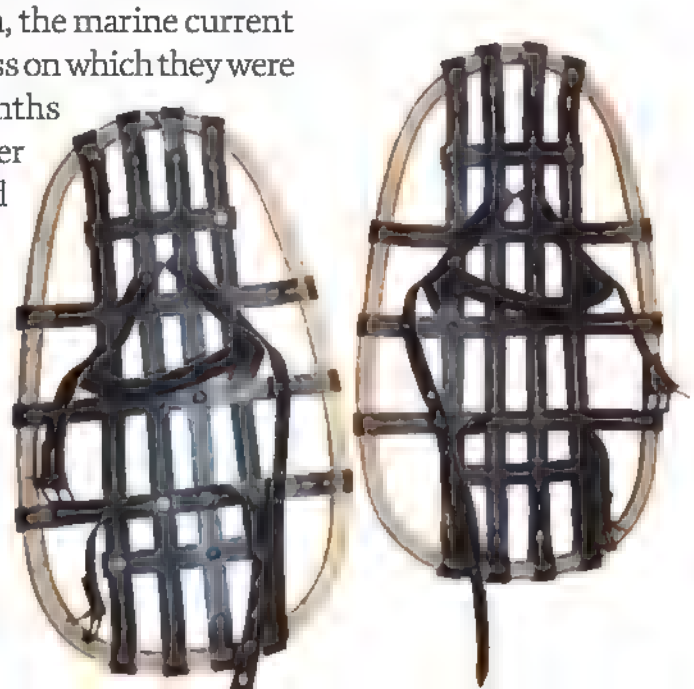
Pack ice, however, behaves differently from land. As they moved south, the marine current was pushing the frozen mass on which they were walking north. In two months of trudging, exhausted, over the ice, they only managed to advance 10 miles. Fortunately, the expedition did finally make it back to the open sea and reached the Russian coast, where they were rescued by a fisherman.

CAPTAIN INGLEFIELD'S SHIP *ISABEL* SAILED IN ARCTIC WATERS IN 1852, AS DEPICTED BY GEORGE CHAMBERS. NATIONAL MARITIME MUSEUM, LONDON

NATIONAL MARITIME MUSEUM, LONDON/ALBUM

A BREAKTHROUGH

BRITISH EXPLORER EDWARD INGLEFIELD captained the *Isabel* in 1852 into Smith Sound, the channel separating the islands of Greenland and Ellesmere (Canada) which until then had been believed impassable. By the time the ice forced him to turn around at 78° north latitude, he had pushed farther into the strait than anyone before him and returned to report on a route that would be used by other polar explorers.



ICE KIT
A pair of snowshoes from Spitsbergen, in Norway's Svalbard archipelago. They enable the wearer to walk through heavy snowfall without sinking.

MURRAY, SPL/AGE FOTOSTOCK

Ice, Darkness, and Hunger

Visitors to Arctic climes were awed by the power of ice, a force that could crush and sink a ship. To survive, explorers had to adapt to months without sun, and to eke out food and shelter from the most unforgiving terrain on the planet.

ARCTIC SLEDGE OF THE KIND USED BY EXPLORERS 1895 ILLUSTRATION
BRIDGEMAN/ACI

▸ *Caught in Ice*

In August 1881 the 32-man crew commanded by G. W. De Long abandoned their ship *Jeannette*, which had been trapped in ice for nearly two years. Only 13 of them would survive the months-long journey over ice and frigid waters to Siberia.

TRAPPED IN ICE, THE *JEANNETTE* WAS STUCK FOR TWO YEARS BEFORE HER CREW ABANDONED SHIP TO SEEK RESCUE. 1882 ENGRAVING.
PRISMA/ALBUM

▾ *Longing for Green*

The Austro-Hungarian crew of the *Tegetthoff* was locked in ice for a year and endured 109 days without sun before landing at an archipelago they named Franz Josef Land in August 1873. Its scant vegetation seemed a "paradise."

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EXPEDITION ON FRANZ JOSEF LAND IN AN 1892 CANVAS BY ADOLF OBERMUELLER
ERICH LESSING/ALBUM

Northern Record

In England, Franklin's expedition, the tragic fate of which was eventually discovered in 1859, led to a public ambivalence toward North Pole expeditions, but the British Navy still sought the prize. In 1875 the British Navy launched an expedition commanded by George Nares. Two ships, the *Alert* and *Discovery,* would sail along the west coast of Greenland via Smith Sound. The explorers believed that route would lead them to an open polar sea and the North Pole. The *Discovery* stopped and set up winter quarters at Lady Franklin Bay off Hall Basin, while the *Alert* sailed farther north and sheltered in a bay near Ellesmere Island. To date, it was the farthest point north reached by a European ship.

At this point, Nares began having second thoughts about the expedition. His observations led him to believe there was no open polar sea. Despite his misgivings, the mission continued. After wintering in their respective spots, both crews sent out several sledging parties to explore the terrain in the spring. It turned out that they were poorly equipped for the brutal Arctic conditions. They were able to go as far as 83° 20'—the farthest any Western explorer had reached so far. But it was 450 miles short of their goal. The team had to turn back because of illness and harsh conditions. Many were suffering from scurvy, and many died. The expedition was cut short of its goal, and the two boats ultimately returned to Britain in November 1876. The British public felt the mission was a disaster for having failed to reach the Pole and resulting in the deaths of so many men. Nares's mission would be the last major one sponsored by Great Britain.

Polar Years

In 1881 another major American scientific expedition set out to capture the North Pole. Led by 1st Lt. Adolphus Greely of the Fifth United States Cavalry, the Lady Franklin Bay expedition aimed to establish a weather station as part of the first International Polar Year (IPY). The collaboration came about in 1879 as 12 nations agreed to join forces in the scientific study of the Arctic.

The United States' purpose of the expedition was not only to collect scientific data, but also to claim the "farthest north" record held by the British. Despite high hopes for Greely's mission, the results were tragic. Only seven of the expedition's original 25 members, including Greely, survived. Poor planning combined with harsh weather delayed the delivery of critical supplies and rations for the team, who were left for three seasons on Ellesmere Island to endure starvation, fatigue, and exposure. The United States did achieve the record of farthest north, but at a great cost.

Undeterred by the disaster of Greely's mission, the *New York Herald* decided to sponsor its own expedition to the North Pole. In 1879 the *Jeannette,* commanded by George De Long, entered the Arctic through the Bering Strait with the hope of being carried along by the warm

MEMBERS OF THE ARCTIC EXPEDITION LED BY GEORGE NARES OPERATE AN ICE-CUTTING SAW. IN THE BACKGROUND IS THE SHIP *ALERT,* SURROUNDED BY PACK ICE. LATE 19TH-CENTURY ENGRAVING.
UIG/ALBUM

THE POWER OF ICE

THE CREW OF George Nares's 1875-76 polar expedition used ice saws for carving out docks for their two ships. Even so, the pack ice could quickly entrap the vessels, as an *Alert* crew member, Albert Hastings Markham, recorded: "A large floe-berg pressed violently against the vessel lifting the stern out of the water to a height of about five feet. The noise of the cracking of the beams and the groaning of the timbers was a sound that once heard will never be forgotten."

INUIT EYEWEAR
The Inuit protected themselves from the powerful glare of the sun off the snow with slitted eye masks (below). These had very narrow openings, cutting down the light that reached their eyes.
BOLTIN PICTURE/BRIDGEMAN/AC

Moving In on the North Pole

The Italian Umberto Cagni tried to reach the pole by sledge, while the Swede Salomon Andrée was bolder and used a balloon. Both failed, but while Cagni returned alive, Andrée died in the attempt.

Crash Landing

In 1897 three Swedes set out for the pole in a hot-air balloon. Decades later in 1930 their frozen bodies were found next to a camera, whose photographs revealed that they survived the crash and died searching for a way home.

GRANGER/ALBUM

Inching Closer

In March 1900, after several false starts, and with depleted rations, Umberto Cagni set out to reach the pole by sledge. On April 24, with the temperature at minus 51°C, Cagni decided to turn back. Despite the failure, he had beaten the record of Nansen by 21 miles.

BRIDGEMAN/ACI

Kuroshio ocean current from the North Pacific. But De Long had not heeded the advice of whalers who worked in the area and who knew from experience that the current would not be strong enough to carry the ship through. As the ship advanced, the *Jeannette* became locked in ice and sank two years later. The expeditioners were forced to drag their lifeboats across a vast wasteland until they found open water. They eventually reached the coast of Siberia in the autumn of 1881, but only a third of the crew survived the devastating journey.

Testing Theories

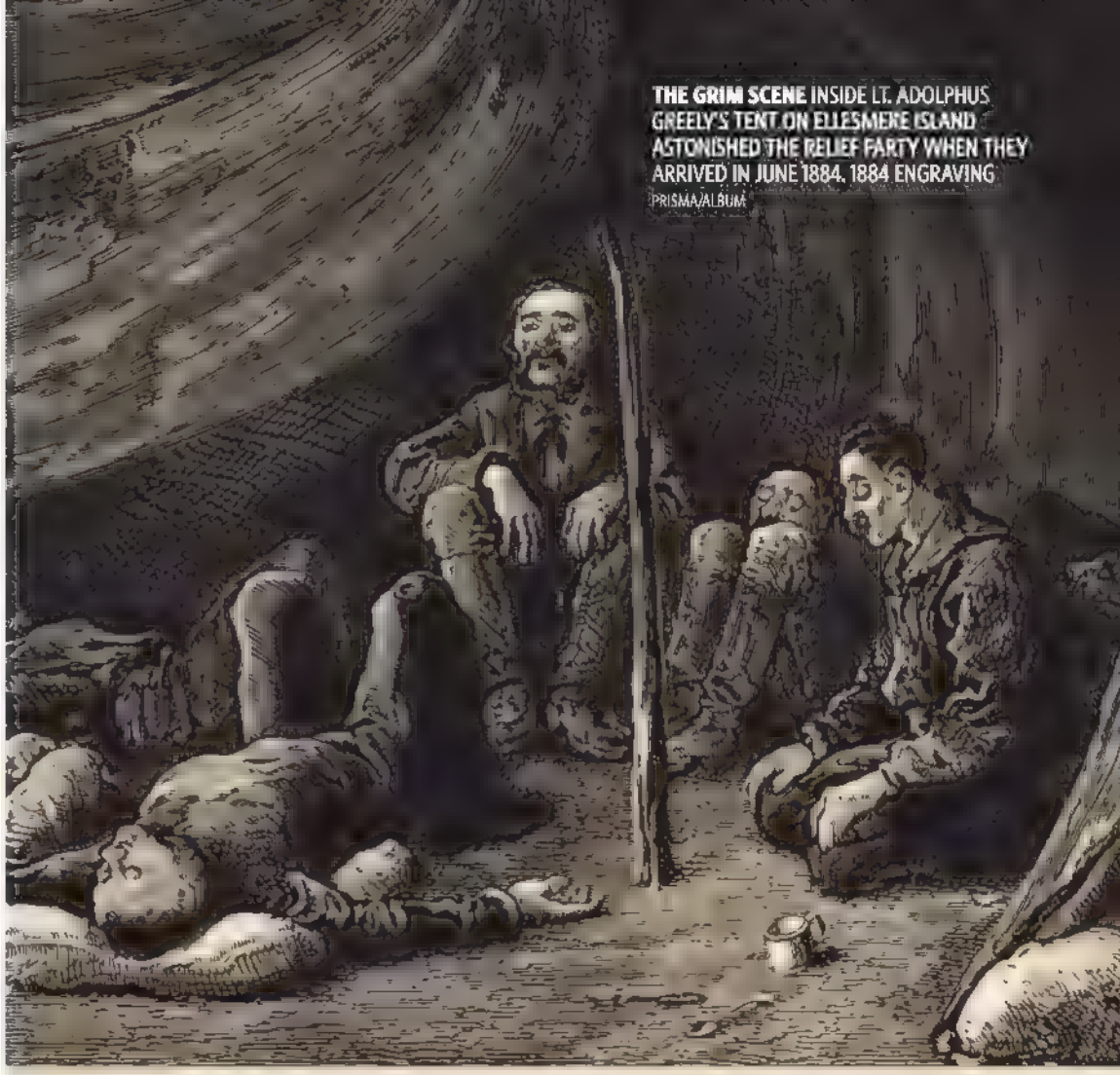
Amazingly, three years later, wreckage from the *Jeannette* had drifted to the coast of Greenland. Norwegian scientist and explorer Fridtjof Nansen used this finding to theorize the existence of a marine current that ran across the entire Arctic Ocean. By his reckoning, if a ship was caught by the ice in the same area that the *Jeannette* sank, it could cross the entire Arctic. It would eventually exit at the other end, having passed across the North Pole.

Nansen decided to test his theory. He built a ship named *Fram* ("forward") with a new keel design, capable of holding fast against the ice in Arctic waters. The ship would be allowed to become embedded in ice, and Nansen believed the current would then carry it to the pole. He set out in 1893 with a small crew of 12.

At first all went well. The ship was able to withstand the pressure of the ice in the water. However, after about a year adrift, the explorer saw that his water route might not take him to the North Pole after all. Nansen decided to strike for the pole by skis and by sledges in March 1895. He and teammate Hjalmar Johansen were able to establish a new farthest north record while facing harsh conditions as they moved across Franz Josef Land. They were forced to build a shelter and overwinter at what is now called Jackson Island, named in honor of British polar explorer Frederick Jackson, the man who found Nansen and Johansen and brought them back to Norway in 1896.

Meanwhile, still dedicated to testing Nansen's theory, the *Fram* and the rest of her crew remained caught in the pack ice that was drifting across the Arctic. Otto Sverdrup commanded the ship and made sure that scientific observations continued as the *Fram* slowly moved. In August 1896 the ship finally found open water and was able to sail back to Norway, proving Nansen's theory correct.

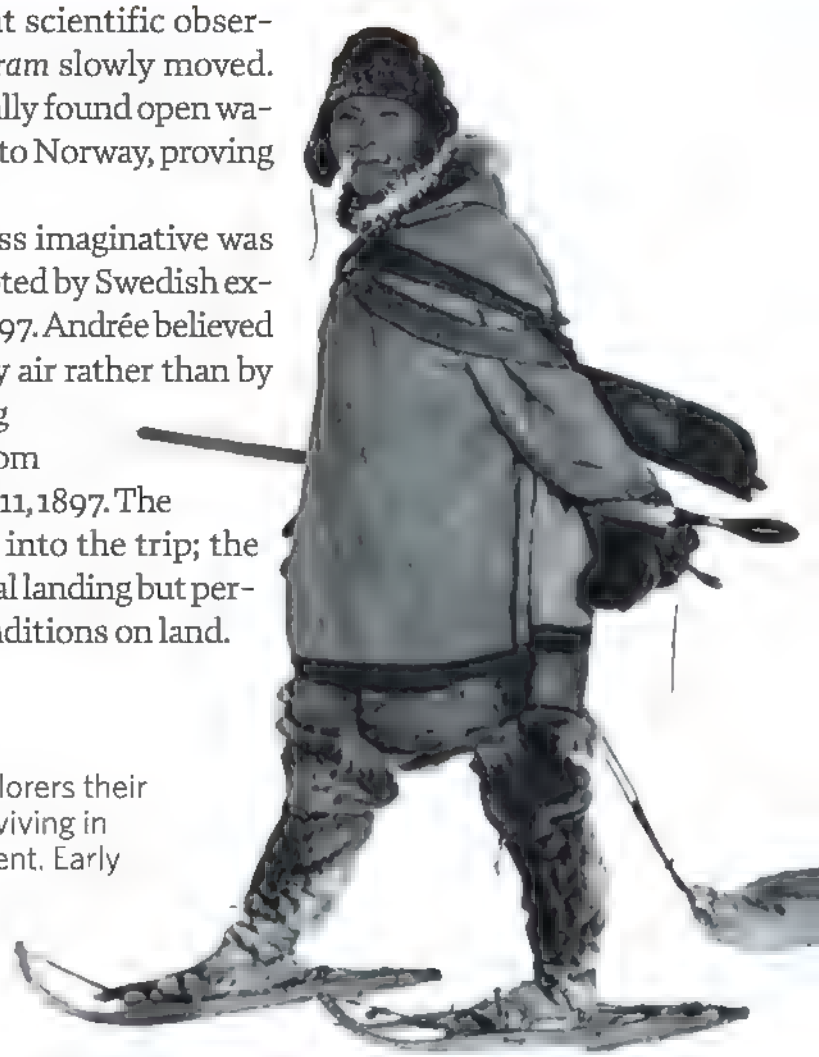
Less successful but no less imaginative was a balloon expedition attempted by Swedish explorer Salomon Andrée in 1897. Andrée believed he could achieve the pole by air rather than by sea. He and Nils Strindberg and Knut Fraenkel set out from Spitsbergen, Norway, on July 11, 1897. The balloon crashed three days into the trip; the three men survived the initial landing but perished in the unforgiving conditions on land.



THE GRIM SCENE INSIDE LT. ADOLPHUS GREELY'S TENT ON ELLESMERE ISLAND ASTONISHED THE RELIEF PARTY WHEN THEY ARRIVED IN JUNE 1884. 1884 ENGRAVING
PRISMA/ALBUM

BRUTAL CONDITIONS

WHEN ADOLPHUS GREELY was rescued in 1884, he reportedly said, "Here we are, dying like men. Did what I came to do—beat the record." Of the original 25 members, only seven had survived the mission. Rumors circulated about the grim conditions in which the men were found, including claims of cannibalism.



EXTREME HUNTING
The Inuit shared with the explorers their expertise in traveling and surviving in the extreme Arctic environment. Early 20th-century photograph
GRANGER/ALBUM

A THOUSAND DAYS OF ICE

In 1893 Norwegian explorer Fridtjof Nansen embarked on the *Fram* for an expedition that he calculated could last as long as five years. He allowed the ship to become embedded in the ice and then waited for the current to move it toward the pole. After 18 months adrift, he felt that the pole could only be reached on foot. He left the ship to seek the pole with skis and sledges alongside Hjalmar Johansen. After getting as far as 86° north on April 8, 1895, they made the decision to turn back, first by sledge and then by kayak to Franz Josef Land. They were rescued by British explorer Frederick Jackson and reached Norway in August 1896.

FRIDTHOF NANSEN IN THE 1890S
SPL/AGE FOTOSTOCK

① *Setting Out*
Nansen (second from left) and Johansen (seventh from left, in the background) set out on foot for the pole on March 14, 1895, with three sledges and 28 dogs.
FOR ALAN/ALAMY/AC

② *Nordic Tracking*
Sliding on skis, Nansen and Johansen pulled the sledges themselves after their sled dogs perished. They spent a year exploring the Arctic.
914 COLLECTION/ALAMY/ACI

③ *Scientific Advances*

Nansen took detailed measurements in the Arctic, which revealed that the ocean was deeper than previously thought.

914 COLLECTION/ALAMY/ACI

Icebound

The *Fram*, trapped by ice in March 1894, had a hull specially designed to withstand the intense pressure of the polar ice.

914 COLLECTION/ALAMY/ACI

TOP OF THE WORLD
This unimpressive sign marks the 90° north latitude. The sign itself shifts as the polar caps are dragged along by the powerful marine currents.

SUE FLOOD/GETTY IMAGES

The North Pole Heats Up

European expeditions for the North Pole continued with no success. Some managed to push a little farther north, like the Italian mission led by Prince Luigi Amedeo, with his captain Umberto Cagni managing to travel a bit farther north than Nansen, but did not achieve the North Pole.

While Europeans continued to strive for the pole. American explorers were hot on their heels. Among them was Robert E. Peary, who made eight trips to the Arctic between 1886 and 1909. Another American striver was Frederick A. Cook, who served in 1891–92 as physician on Peary's Arctic mission. Cook continued to explore Earth's northern regions, eventually striking out on his own for the North Pole in 1907. The two former comrades had become competitors, each one trying to capture the prize.

Cook's mission began with little fanfare in 1907 when his schooner, the *John R. Bradley,* departed from Massachusetts for Greenland, where he would spend the winter at Annoatok, an Inuit settlement some 700 miles away. In February 1908 he set off in search of the North Pole. Two Inuit guides, Etukishook and Ahwelah, accompanied Cook all the way north to where he claimed he reached 90° north on April 21, 1908.

Peary had been trying to claim the North Pole for nearly two decades by the time he set out in summer 1908 aboard the *Roosevelt*. He started his journey with a large group, but winnowed it down over several months to just Matthew Henson, a veteran of Peary's expeditions, and four Inuit guides. On April 6, 1909, Peary's party believed they had reached the North Pole.

In fall 1909 competing newspapers trumpeted each man's claim to the discovery, and a red-hot controversy was born. Cook's account came under great scrutiny and was pronounced unproven. The National Geographic Society, after examining Peary's papers, proclaimed that Peary had indeed reached the North Pole. Cook's reputation diminished while Peary's soared.

In the 1980s the National Geographic Society reevaluated Peary's documents and found that he had not achieved the North Pole. Other experts argue that Henson was actually the first to the pole, not Peary. Cook's account remains a mystery; his supporting documents went missing and have never been found.

SETTING OUT
Ralpn Plaisted boards a plane at Montreal in an early phase of his overland conquest of the North Pole. His team would reach the pole by snowmobile in the spring of 1968.
GETTY MAGES

In the decades ahead, powered flight finally brought the pole within reach. The first confirmed expedition to set foot at 90° north was a Soviet crew, airlifted directly to the spot in 1948. But the land approach seemed abandoned until the 1960s when Ralph Plaisted—an insurance man from Minnesota—successfully headed the first surface conquest of the pole, riding on a snowmobile, and arriving on April 19, 1968. A year later, British explorer Wally Herbert became the first, confirmed person to walk to the pole as part of an epic, 3,800-mile crossing of the Arctic Ocean.

SCIENTIST AND HISTORIAN JAVIER CACHO IS AUTHOR OF A BIOGRAPHY OF THE NORWEGIAN ARCTIC EXPLORER FRIDJTOF NANSEN.

Learn more

True North: Peary, Cook, and the Race to the Pole
Bruce Henderson, W. W. Norton & Company, 2006

Ninety Degrees North: The Quest for the North Pole
Fergus Fleming, Grove Press, 2002

PEARY AND THE POLE

Robert Peary was obsessed with being the first to the North Pole. He made many trips to the Arctic to seek the prize. In 1909, Peary, accompanied by veteran explorer Matthew Henson, said he finally had reached the North Pole. The year before, a former colleague, Frederick Cook, claimed he reached the pole first, but his accounts were widely discounted. Peary received the praise he sought, but his inaccurate measurements and the rapidity with which he covered long distances led many experts later to doubt whether he truly achieved his goal.

FIGHTING FOR IT PEARY AND COOK FIGHT OVER THEIR CLAIMS OF HAVING ARR.VED FIRST AT THE NORTH POLE. COVER OF A PARISIAN PUBLICATION *LE PETIT JOURNAL*, 1909
JIG/ALBUM

▲ ***Inuit Assistance***

Peary's expedition relied heavily on the local Inuit. In his account of the expedition, Peary writes: "The Eskimos had built the sledges and made the dog harnesses . . . while the busy needles of the Eskimo women had provided every man with a fur outfit."

GRANGER/ALBUM

Portrait of a Self Promoter

Robert Edwin Peary (1856-1920) was "tall, erect, broad-shouldered, full chested, tough, . . . full mustached . . . a dead shot, a powerful, tireless swimmer, a first-class rider, a skillful boxer and fencer." At least that's how he described himself. Voraciously ambitious, he once wrote: "I do not wish to live and die without accomplishing anything or without being known beyond a narrow circle of friends."

GRANGER/ALBUM

▼ ***Choosing a Path***

Peary sailed up the Smith Sound and into the Nares Strait. He then continued by sledge from the north of Ellesmere Island. The beginning of the journey was difficult, but later the expedition enjoyed good weather and flat ice.

HULTON ARCHIVE/GETTY IMAGES

▲ ***The North Pole?***

On April 6, 1909, Peary and Henson believed they reached the North Pole. Of all the team, only Peary knew how to make the latitude calculations, and many researchers have called them into question. The speed with which they returned prompted further doubts.

GETTY IMAGES

Small Wonders: The Tanagras Figurines

The quiet beauty of terracotta statuettes made in the fourth century B.C.—the Tanagras—provide an intimate look into the ordinary lives of everyday women and children of ancient Greece.

In the 1860s peasants from the town of Bratsi, in the Greek region of Boeotia, north of Athens were plowing the soil when they unearthed an ancient grave, and then another and another. Although there were no lavish grave goods to be found, the burial sites did harbor a magnificent treasure of a different kind. As they dug, the peasants began to unearth beautifully made terracotta figurines. The fascinating little statues, mainly of female figures between three and nine inches tall, were everywhere. Eventually hundreds would be collected.

The accidental archaeologists offered the pieces for sale to anyone they met and news of the extraordinary find soon spread, attracting treasure hunters. Grimadha, near the location of the ancient city-state of Tanagra,

was a popular target for looters. It is estimated that more than 8,000 graves were dug up as people hungrily searched for the figurines.

The illegal excavation of the Tanagra necropolises became an open secret, and Greek authorities eventually decided to intervene, sending archaeologist Panayiotis Stamatakis to oversee the first official dig in 1874. The archaeologists' attempt at imposing some order on the excavation was too little, too late. Their findings lacked the necessary detail to be of much academic use. In 1911 excavations began to be carried out more methodically, but it was not until the 1970s, more than a century after the first figurines came to light, that excavations were conducted with the proper rigor and care.

Popular Girls

The demand for Tanagra figurines seemed to have no bounds in late 19th-century Europe. The statuettes, mainly of women, fit in with the ideals of feminine beauty and fashion of the Belle Epoque. The softness, grace, and modesty idealized in the diminutive figures, their robes, drapery, head coverings, and hairstyles contrasted with the austere depiction of male figures: classical Greek gods, statesmen and soldiers.

The presence of the government archaeologists at Tanagra did not stop the grave robbing. Insatiable demand for the figurines drove more clandestine removal from the necropolises. Fake figurines also began to enter the antiquities market. Some

TANAGRA figurines are displayed in a 2008 exhibition at the Altes Museum in Berlin. In common with most authentic Tanagra-style pieces, the original bright colors have faded.

ARIS/SZ PHOTO/ PHOTOAISA

EGYPTIAN CIGARETTE CASE ILLUSTRATED WITH THE IMAGE OF A TANAGRA FIGURINE, EARLY 20TH CENTURY.

PNC COLLECTION/ALAMY/AC

1806
British scholar William Martin Leake, visits a site near Grimadha in south central Greece, which he later identifies as Tanagra

1870
Large-scale looting of figurines begins at the site of Tanagra. It will leave more than 8,000 tombs ransacked

1874
A Greek government attempt to secure the site fails to stop figurines flooding into Europe's antiquities market.

1895
As the Tanagra craze spreads in Europe, anthropologist James Frazer records the devastation at the site

of the imitations were clumsy copies, but others were skilled forgeries and more difficult to detect. Local villagers would sell the figures—authentic and otherwise—to whomever would buy them, at increasingly exorbitant prices.

Many of these imposters fooled experts for years. They even made their way into prominent museum collections. Recent thermoluminescence analysis of Tanagra figurines in the German State collection has revealed that as many as 20 percent of them are fakes.

Custom Models

The delicacy of the Tanagra figurines reveals how skilled the Greeks were in the art of coroplasty, or clay modeling. The body would be shaped from a two-part mold, and then the head and arms (also created from molds) would be attached. The figure would be customized

(continued on page 94)

SACRED SUBJECTS

THE TANAGRA FIGURES represented many ordinary scenes and everyday episodes, but they also depicted various mythological subjects such as the abduction of Europa, a Phoenician princess, by the god Zeus. He has taken the form of a beautiful bull, and she sits astride his back. The work retains part of its original polychrome, especially on the hair and clothing. Museum of Mediterranean Archaeology, Marseilles

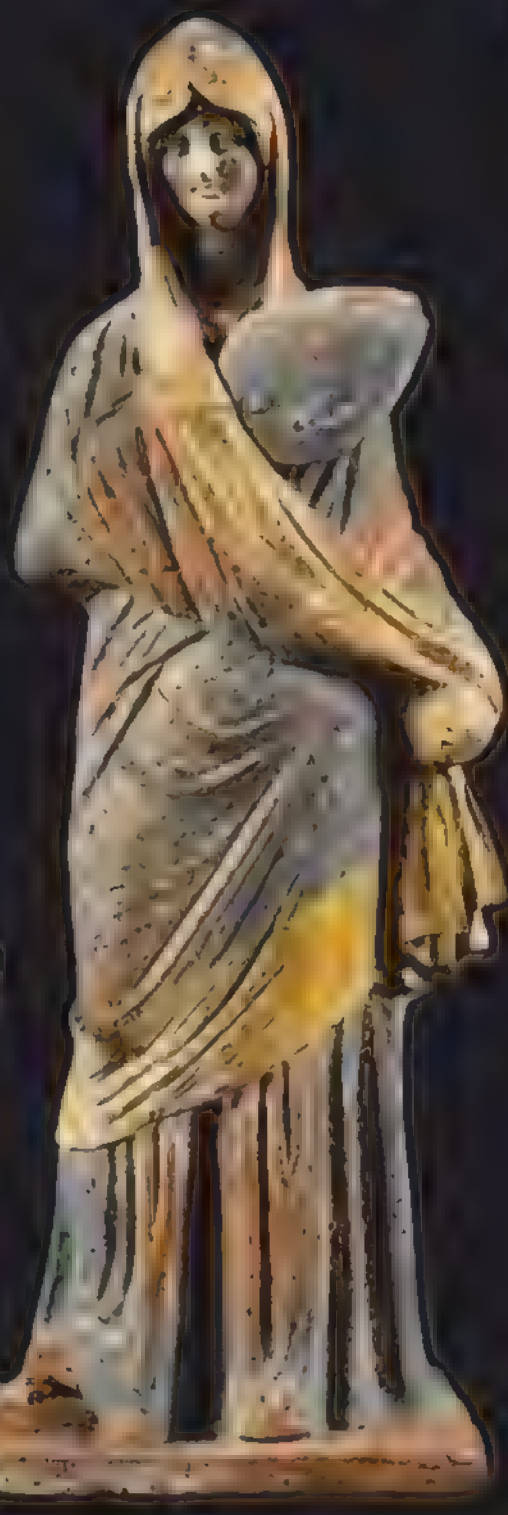
D. G. ANTIQUITÉS NA... RMN-GRAND PALAIS

Everyday People

TANAGRA TERRACOTTAS provide a remarkably realistic depiction of the types of women living in the cities of fourth-century B.C. Greece. The most common subjects were women draped in garments called himations, but subjects also include children, the elderly, and characters from mythology.

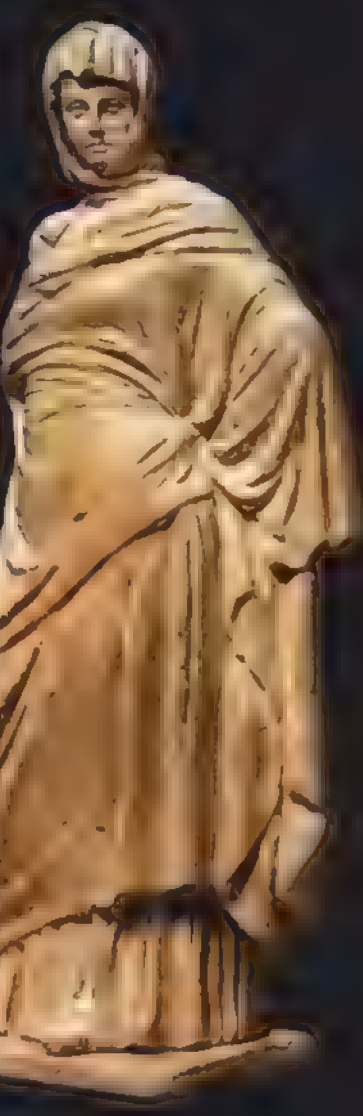
Elderly woman with two children. Not all the figures represent young women. Some, like this one, depict elderly people or people with physical defects. National Ceramic Museum, Sèvres, France

M. BECK-COPPOLA/RMN-GRAND PALAIS



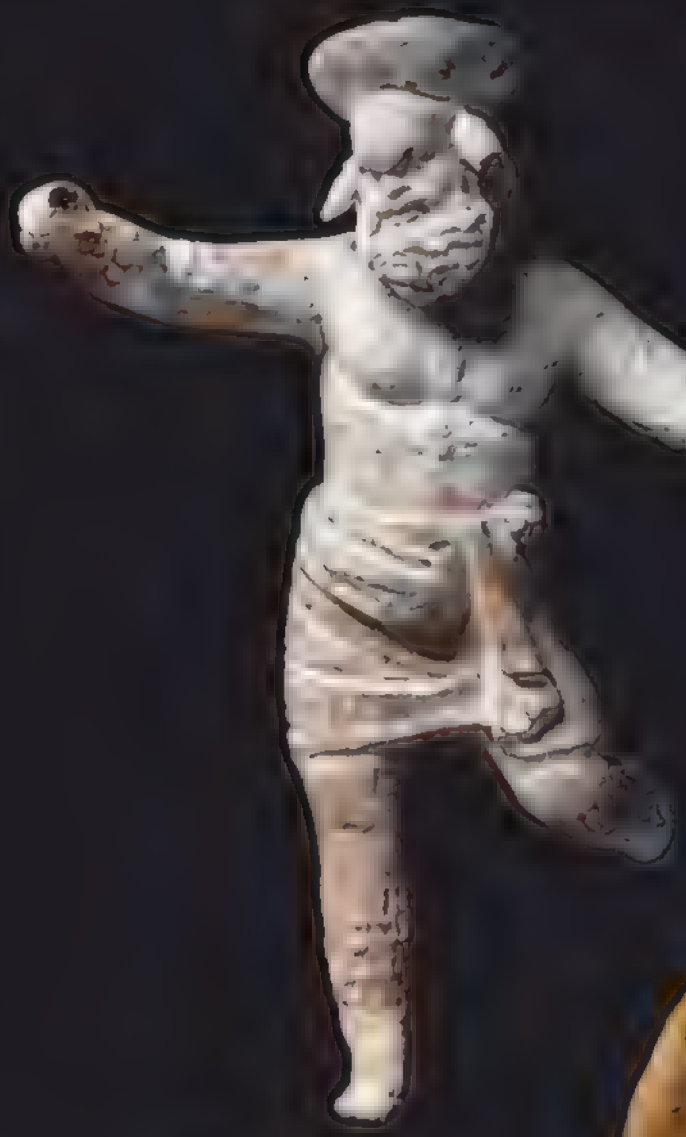
Lady in Blue. This figure retains much of its original polychrome. She is draped in a mantle and holds a large tapering fan. Louvre Museum, Paris

A. CHAUVET/RMN-GRAND PALAIS.



The Sophoclean. The piece's name reflects its resemblance to a famous statue of Sophocles attributed to Athenian sculptor Leochares. Louvre Museum, Paris

H. LEWANDOWSKI/RMN-GRAN PALAIS



Papposilenos, a companion and tutor to the god Dionysus, dances to zills (finger cymbals) that he wears on his hands, Louvre Museum, Paris

H. LEWANDOWSKI/RMN-GRAN PALAIS

BODY SHOP

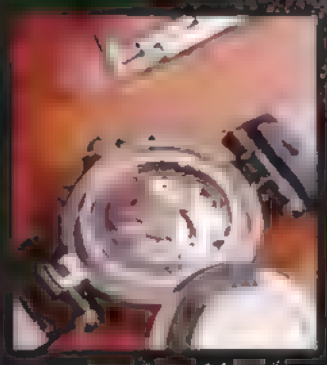
TO MAKE THE FIGURINES, a two-piece mold was used to form the body, one piece for the back section, the other for the front. The two sections were joined together using a mixture of clay and water to form a whole. A rectangular base was attached, and small vents cut so moisture could escape during firing.

RENÉ-GABRIEL OJÉDA/RMN-GRAND PALAIS

"I've gotten many compliments on this watch. The craftsmanship is phenomenal and the watch is simply pleasing to the eye."
—M., Irvine, CA
"GET THIS WATCH."
—M., Wheeling, IL
Back in Black
The New Face of Luxury Watches
"...go black. Dark and handsome remains a classic for a reason"
—Men's Journal
Stauer
JAN MAR MAY JUL SEP NOV
SUN MON TUE WED THU FRI SAT

I'll Take Mine Black...No Sugar

In the early 1930s watch manufacturers took a clue from Henry Ford's favorite quote concerning his automobiles, "You can have any color as long as it is black." Black dialed watches became the rage especially with pilots and race drivers. Of course, since the black dial went well with a black tuxedo, the adventurer's black dial watch easily moved from the airplane hangar to dancing at the nightclub. Now, Stauer brings back the "Noire", a design based on an elegant timepiece built in 1936. Black dialed, complex automatics from the 1930s have recently hit new heights at auction. One was sold for in excess of $600,000. We thought that you might like to have an affordable version that will be much more accurate than the original.



27 jewels and hand-assembled parts drive this classic masterpiece.

Basic black with a twist. Not only are the dial, hands and face vintage, but we used a 27-jeweled automatic movement. This is the kind of engineering desired by fine watch collectors worldwide. But since we design this classic movement on state of the art computer-controlled Swiss built machines, the accuracy is excellent. Three interior dials display day, month and date. We have priced the luxurious Stauer ***Noire*** at a price to keep you in the black... only 3 payments of $33. So slip into the back of your black limousine, savor some rich tasting black coffee and look at your wrist knowing that you have some great times on your hands.

An offer that will make you dig out your old tux. The movement of the Stauer ***Noire*** wrist watch carries an extended two year warranty. But first enjoy this handsome timepiece risk-free for 30 days for the extraordinary price of only 3 payments of $33. If you are not thrilled with the quality and rare design, simply send it back for a full refund of the item price. But once you strap on the ***Noire*** you'll want to stay in the black.

Exclusive Offer—Not Available in Stores

Stauer Noire Watch ~~$399+~~

Your Cost With Offer Code **$99** + S&P **Save $300**

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Offer Code: NWT490-06

You must use this offer code to get our special price.

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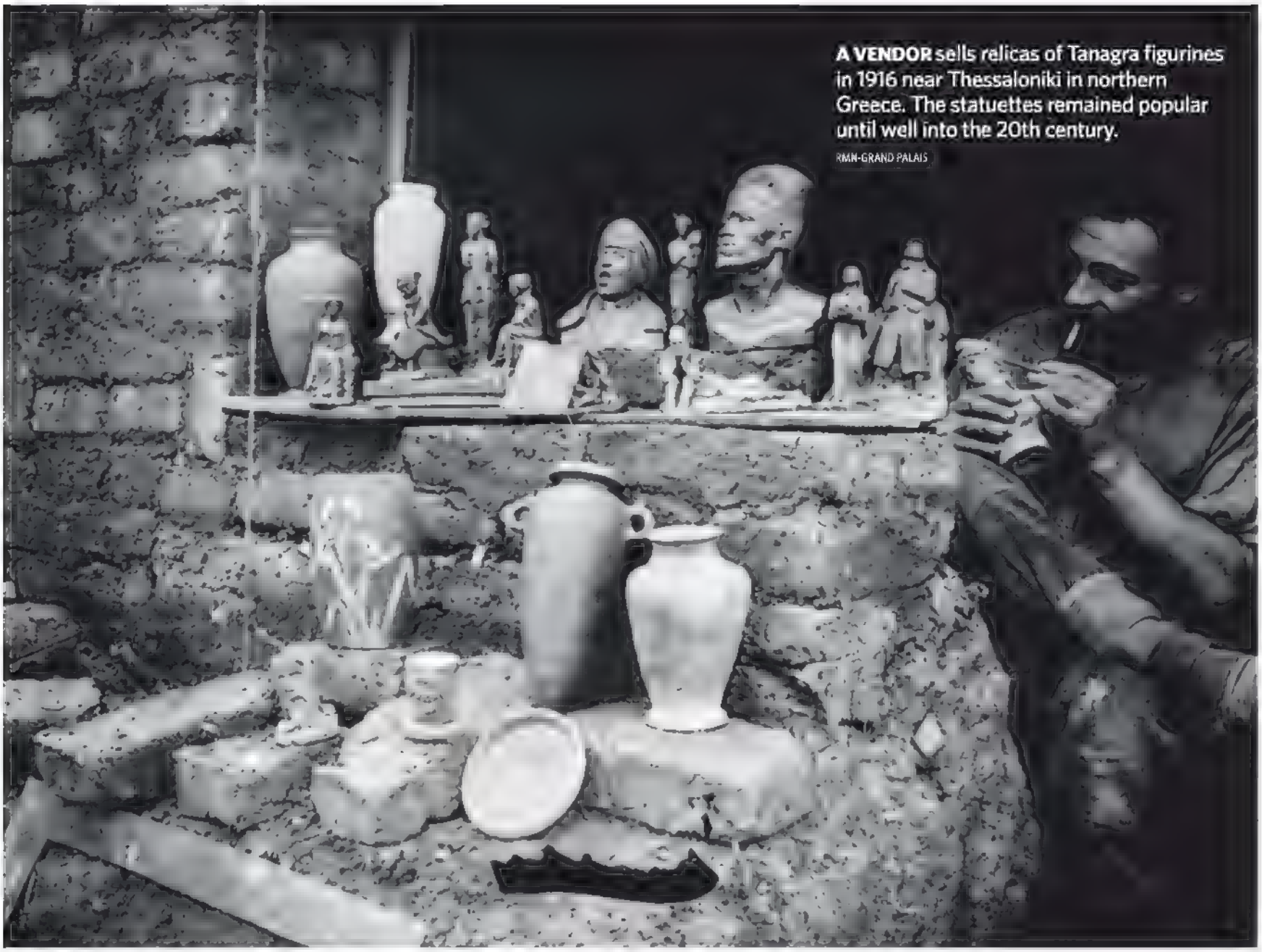
BBB Rating of A+

27-jewel automatic movement • Month, day, date and 24-hour, sun/ moon dials • Luminous markers • Date window at 3' o'clock • Water resistant to 5 ATM • Crocodile embossed leather strap in black fits wrists to 6½"–9"

Stauer... *Afford the Extraordinary.*®



A VENDOR sells relicas of Tanagra figurines in 1916 near Thessaloniki in northern Greece. The statuettes remained popular until well into the 20th century.

RMN-GRAND PALAIS

(continued from page 91)
through different poses and by adding different decorative elements, like crowns and flower hats.

Before firing, artisans applied a mixture called white slip, made of water and clay. After the clay had baked, water-based pigments were applied to a layer of fresh lime plaster. The figures were painted in naturalistic hues and soft colors. Rich shades of blue and gold leaf were used sparingly, as both were very expensive at the time. The figures were popular around the Mediterranean in the fourth century B.C. Figurines have been found in Corinth, Macedonia, Asia Minor, southern Italy, north Africa, and as far away as Kuwait.

Form and Function

The figurines discovered at Tanagra demonstrate how the wide artistic range of this kind of Greek sculpture. The excavations unearthed hundreds of different female forms, ranging from demure matrons to nubile veiled dancers and girls at play. Rather than exalting the gods or statesmen, these quiet statues were an intimate look into the lives of everyday women and their children, an experience which is often not reflected in the literature of the time. Their clothing and their gestures reveal contemporary attitudes towards female roles in society.

Scholars hold differing opinions on the function of these small statues. It's possible that they manufactured for different uses. Since the majority of figurines were grave goods, it is possible they played an official role in burial practices. It's also possible that the original rationale behind burying the figurines was eventually forgotten, while the custom of depositing them remained. Many Tanagra figurines were found in domestic settings, which suggests that they could have been affordable, decorative art.

Some of the most famous figurines, such as the Lady in Blue and the Sophoclean, seem to have been inspired by large statues by master sculptors such as Praxiteles and Leochares. Some experts believe that the Tanagra figurines were produced purely for their aesthetic appeal, as mini replicas, a practice that would later be developed by Roman patricians when they decorated their residences.

—Ángel Carlos Pérez

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Years of work by innovative engineers have resulted in a personal electric vehicle that's truly unique. They created a battery that provides powerful energy at a fraction of the weight of most batteries. The ***Zinger*** features two steering levers, one on either side of the seat. The user pushes both levers down to go forward, pulls them both up to brake, and pushes one while pulling the other to turn to either side. This enables great mobility, the ability to turn on a dime and to pull right up to tables or desks. The controls are right on the steering lever so it's simple to operate and its exclusive footrest swings out of the way when you stand up or sit down. With its rugged yet lightweight aluminum frame, the ***Zinger*** is sturdy and durable yet convenient and comfortable! What's more, it easily folds up for storage in a car seat or trunk– you can even gate-check it at the airport like a stroller. Think about it, you can take your ***Zinger*** almost anywhere, so you don't have to let mobility issues rule your life. It folds in seconds without tools and is safe and reliable. It holds up to 275 pounds, and it goes up to 6 mph and operates for up to 8 miles on a single charge.

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The Zinger Chair is a personal electric vehicle and is not a medical device nor a wheelchair, and has not been submitted to the FDA for review or clearance. Zinger is not intended for medical purposes to provide mobility to persons restricted to a sitting position. It is not covered by Medicare nor Medicaid.

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Next Issue

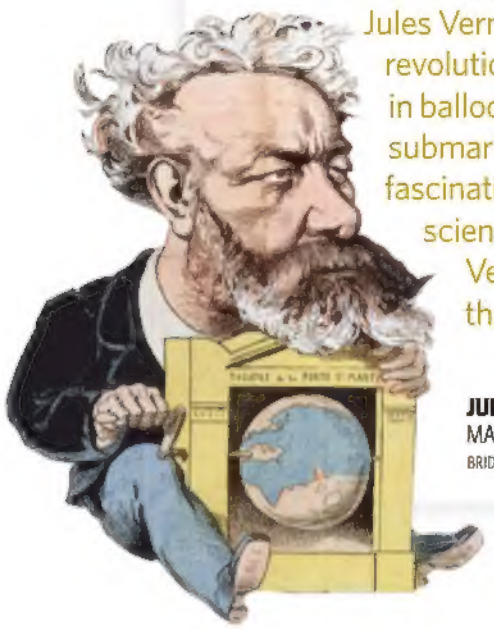
KUBLAI KHAN'S PORTRAIT WAS PRODUCED SOON AFTER HIS DEATH IN 1294. NATIONAL PALACE MUSEUM, TAIPEI, TAIWAN
BRIDGEMAN/ACI

KUBLAI KHAN, LORD OF XANADU

GRANDSON OF GENGHIS, Kublai, the fifth great khan, ruled the colossal Mongol Empire, the largest contiguous land empire the world has ever known, from Xanadu (Shangdu), his most famous capital city. During the 13th century, his fierce warriors completed the conquest of China, defeating the Song dynasty, and further expanded the realm until it stretched from the Pacific Ocean to the Black Sea, encompassing more than nine million square miles and holding roughly 110 million people.

THE FANTASTIC WORLD OF JULES VERNE

HIS NOVELS are among the most imaginative ever written: *Journey to the Center of the Earth* took its characters to Earth's core via an Icelandic volcano, while readers dove *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea* into the underwater world of Captain Nemo. Born in 1828, in the port city of Nantes, France, Jules Verne watched as a travel revolution took people to the skies in balloons and under the seas in submarines. Combining a lifelong fascination for technology and science with a vivid imagination, Verne hit on a literary formula that thrills readers to this day.



JULES VERNE IN A CARICATURE FROM THE MAGAZINE *L'ÉCLIPSE* (1874)
BRIDGEMAN/ACI

Warriors on Wheels

Rival to the rulers of Egypt, the Hittites relied on swift chariots to build an empire in what is now Turkey. Thousands of chariots would clash when the two foes met at the Battle of Kadesh in 1274 B.C., one of history's largest chariot battles.

Egypt's Great Mother Goddess

Daughter of the gods of earth and sky, Isis was worshipped in the Egyptian pantheon for millennia as a maternal goddess and protector of pharaohs before her cult spread throughout the ancient world, blending with local deities and traditions.

Pirates of the Mediterranean

The Caribbean wasn't the only sea to have a pirate problem. Maritime marauders have been around for centuries: raiding ports, kidnapping nobles (including a young Julius Caesar), and seizing ships from ancient Egypt, Greece, and Rome.

The Creation

a needlepoint kit collection

Alex Beattie's inspired needlework series brings the biblical story of creation vividly to life. Each panel depicts one of the six days as described in the book of Genesis and together they make a magnificent collection. The kits include the cotton printed canvas, a needle, instruction leaflet, color chart, and all the 100% pure new wool needed to complete the design.

All designs measure 16" x 16" and are printed on 12 holes to the inch canvas.

$105.00 each

Day 1 In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth. And the earth was without form, and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep. And the Spirit of God moved upon the face of the waters. And God said, Let there be light: and there was light.

Day 2 And God said, Let there be a firmament in the midst of the waters, and let it divide the waters from the waters. And God called the firmament Heaven.

Day 3 And God said, Let the waters under the heaven be gathered together under one place, and let the dry land appear: and it was so. And God called the dry land Earth; and the gathering together of the waters called he Seas.

Day 4 And God said, Let there be lights in the firmament of the heaven to divide the day from the night; and let them be for signs, and for seasons, and for days, and years: And let them be for lights in the firmament of the heaven to give light upon the earth.

Day 5 And God said, Let the waters bring forth abundantly the moving creature that hath life, and fowl that may fly above the earth in the open firmament of heaven.

Day 6 And God made the beast of the earth after his kind, and cattle after their kind, and every thing that creepeth upon the earth after his kind: and God saw that it was good.

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